

The Nation

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The Nation.

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For boys not sufficiently grounded in those rudiments, there is a prescribed course of training in reading, writing, spelling, English grammar—with exercises in composition and declamation, arithmetic, geography, and the history of the United States. Beyond these elements, instruction is given in the following eleven departments of study, all of which are elective: mathematics, physical and natural science, English language and literature, French, German, Latin, Greek, history and political science, penmanship and bookkeeping, drawing, instrumental music.

The work of scholars who have completed the prescribed studies is selected, according to the individual wants of each, from not less than three nor more than five of these departments. The selection of a boy's studies is made at the beginning of the session for the entire school year; and to obtain full standing in a form and secure regular promotion, a scholar's work is required to amount in the aggregate to at least fifteen exercises a week.

The scholars are classified, according to their attainments, in six forms, of which the sixth is the highest. Their progress in their studies is tested by frequent examinations conducted by the Principal, and a monthly report of each boy's work is sent to his parents or guardian. To maintain his standing, a boy must secure at these examinations a general average in all his studies of at least seventy hundredths, and an average in each study of at least sixty hundredths.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1883.

The Week.

At least five cases of embarrassment of banks in various parts of the country have occurred in the last week, and though not one of them can yet be pronounced to be positively a failure, they have, in connection with the additional mercantile failures, increased the general distrust that pervades the business atmosphere. There is every reason to believe that the banks of the country at large are in an unusually strong condition. This is indicated to some extent by the fact that the New York banks at their last weekly statement showed a surplus reserve of specie and legal-tender notes three times as large as at the corresponding time last year. Nevertheless, in view of the steadily declining prices of all sorts of merchandise and nearly all securities in the last six months (but more especially in the last month), the banks have been obliged to call as steadily for a greater margin of property on their loans, or, in other words, to base their loans on lower and lower prices for all kinds of collateral property. This has compelled the selling out of a great deal of such property and accelerated the decline of prices. In short, there has been and is yet in progress a great liquidation of indebtedness, which thus far has not run into anything like a panic in any of the great lines of business. The nearest approach to any such condition has been in the stock market in the last week, where the decline has been from 3 to 10 points in the prices of stocks. This is equivalent to a decline of probably 15 per cent. of the average market price of, say, 60 for the general list of stocks. At the West the decline in prices of grain and especially of provisions has caused the same necessity for liquidation of bank loans.

It is now nearly a month past the time in the season when the money markets usually become active, yet there is still an over-supply of money to loan on call on undoubted collateral security, at the lowest rates ever known in this country. This money, however, seeks rather safety in the investment than higher rates of interest. The fact that money continues so much lower in New York than in London keeps up the rate for sterling exchange and prevents the movement of specie this way, but the general opinion is that as the rate of interest advances here it will cause a movement of gold from Europe to the United States, and that such a movement would do more than almost any other one thing to restore confidence in the general financial and commercial situation.

The efforts of the telegraphic strikers to carry their point by persistent cutting of the wires will, of course, make it more imperative than ever for the Company to make no concessions to them. It would be a great wrong to the public, besides serious damage to its own business, to admit that it could be brought to terms of any sort by acts of

violence and crime. It would, by doing so, place itself and the public convenience at the mercy of any little knot of conspirators among its employees who chose to be discontented, or who resented any of the rules and regulations under which they worked. As an illustration of the construction some of the strikers put on the phrase "freedom of contract," the wire-cutting has considerable value. Mr. Campbell, the leading manager of the strike, was examined on Monday before the Sub-Committee of the United States Senate on Labor and Education as to the causes of the outbreak. He said the object of the strike was to obtain an increase of wages and a decrease in the working hours. The wages of operators, he said, had been declining for ten years, which he ascribed wholly to the greed and unscrupulousness of the Company. The rest of the world will, however, be inclined to believe that the overcrowding of the occupation, owing to the increased ease with which the art of telegraphy can be acquired and the increasing love of American youth for clean, indoor work, have had much to do with it. Wages do not decline steadily through several years in any occupation, no matter how wicked the employer may be, unless the labor market is overstocked. This is the real reason, too, why the women telegraphers—or, as Mr. Campbell more elegantly calls them, "the lady operators"—receive less pay than the men. They would, in spite of all prejudice about sex, get just the same pay if there were not plenty of women eager to take the places on the terms offered.

As to legislative remedies, none of the witnesses had anything practical to offer. Mr. Campbell wanted to have stock watering prohibited; but this would, of course, do the operators no good if the Company's profits remained the same, and, instead of being distributed yearly among the stockholders, were, like those of some of the banks, or those of the New Haven Railroad, rolled up into a surplus. Mr. McClellan, another witness, differed from Mr. Campbell in his account of the cause of the strike, which he said was directly due to the "insult" put upon the operators by the refusal of the Company to treat with the Brotherhood. He was a very despondent witness, for he said the capitalists and corporations in this country could never be induced to agree to arbitration as a means of adjusting labor disputes, and saw no hope from legislation, because "the capitalist can buy the legislators bodily." He further explained that his real cause of complaint was that while the products of the country were worth \$6,000,000,000, the laborer got only \$979,000,000. So that it would appear as if in order to settle this telegraphic dispute satisfactorily, we should have to adjust the relations of capital and labor throughout the whole country, and see that every man got his due share of the national wealth. Behind most great strikes there looms up a job of this kind, which, it must be admitted, is a large one. What the Railroad

Commission or the Civil Service Reform Commission have on hand is nothing to it.

The striking telegraphers continued their evidence before the Senate Committee on Tuesday, but it cannot be said to be very instructive. The sum and substance of it is that the operators are poorly paid, and that their wages are really lower in this country than in England, though nominally higher. They are mostly, it is said, young unmarried men, and live in comfortable boarding-houses, but can rarely save money. If the same story were told by the members of any other calling—by lawyers, doctors, or clerks, for instance—the advice which almost everybody would give, and does give, is to avoid the business or quit it. There appears, however, to be a peculiar notion abroad that a certain number of young men are bound or foreordained to get into the telegraphic business, and once in to stay in, cost what it may, even if they cannot get a decent living in it. There is, on their own showing, apparently only one remedy for the present state of things, and that is to reduce the number of operators. That is, in fact, the American remedy for bad times in every field of industry. The account given by Mr. Campbell and others of the business and profits of the Western Union was lamentably inaccurate, showing not only that they talk loosely about matters of fact, but do not know exactly what is the matter with them.

Archbishop Elder, of Cincinnati, has called a meeting of the clergy of his diocese to consider what action should be taken toward raising "at least some little percentage" on the debts of the late Archbishop Purcell, his predecessor. He says he does not yet see grounds for "pronouncing it an obligation of justice that the diocese should pay these debts, except for such loans as were made for purposes of religion, and such sums as were expended for works of the diocese." But the understanding has been hitherto that all the money due, except the arrears of interest, went in one or other of these ways. It has been suggested by nobody, we think, that the Archbishop and his brother spent it on themselves or used it for purely secular purposes, and they did not allege that they lost any of it in bad investments, for they made no investments. Therefore, we really do not see on what ground the Catholics of the diocese can escape the obligation of paying off the whole of the debt, except the back interest. This they may perhaps fairly refuse to consider a liability of theirs, as they got no benefit from it, and may set it down to the late Archbishop's carelessness or financial ignorance. To the secular eye, in short, it seems as if the new Archbishop could hardly do a better thing for religion and morality than open his administration by an announcement that the debt must be paid at whatever cost, even if it involves the suspension of a great deal of Church work. No church building erected with the misappropriated

savings of the poor can have any just claim to be considered "a sacred edifice" until the money is refunded.

Another plot to destroy the Welland Canal by dynamite has been discovered in advance. This time the startling revelation is made in Chicago, and there are no intimations that any of the Irish Nationalists who are suspected of being at the bottom of the plot, have been any nearer to Canada than New York is. The former plot, it will be remembered, was thwarted by having the canal picketed, and by having detectives follow the dozen dynamite operators who jumped off a train from Buffalo, each with a hand-bag full of dynamite. It has sometimes been charged that the dynamite patriots are a prudent set, who are careful to keep safely beyond the reach of their own explosives, but it has always seemed to us that the mere act of jumping from a railway train with a bag of dynamite bombs was a sufficient answer to this calumny. In the Chicago revelation nothing so tangible as a hand-bag appears. The revealers do not claim that the plot has advanced beyond the point of "premeditated design," but they have such positive evidence of its existence that they have requested the United States Government to assist in thwarting it. The funds in O'Donovan Rossa's treasury are evidently at a very low ebb.

The *Saturday Review* has an editorial account of Webb's death at Niagara, which in many respects surpasses the best efforts of our most imaginative reporters on this side of the water. It appears that Webb was not to blame at all for his death, but the mob, on the banks, "which was there to see him die; and there was not a man or woman of them all but felt a delightful thrill as he disappeared." This refusal to make even one exception in describing the inmost emotions of a large crowd is delightful for its sturdy simplicity. But the reason why Mr. Webb risked his life was, that "he was undoubtedly influenced by the American fondness for shows of a dangerous character in his choice of a place in which to try to renew his diminished reputation." The *Review* confesses, however, that it was in the eyes of Englishmen that he wished to renew his diminished reputation, and we are left to infer that he could not have done it in the way he had chosen—by the performance of a dangerous feat—in England. Englishmen, we suppose, if Webb had proposed to risk his life in a similar manner in England, would have absented themselves carefully from the scene of the exploit, with their well-known want of curiosity and dislike of large crowds, and shrinking from scenes of suffering or peril; and the poor man would have had to take his dive or his swim in solitude, or with nobody to look at him! but the reporter of the *Daily Telegraph*. So, in order to secure a body of hard-hearted spectators, he came to America, and there he got just the kind of crowd he wanted, for it did not contain even one woman who did not feel a "delightful thrill" at the prospect of his death.

Whether the story of the huge offer made by the Canadian railroads to the British Gov-

ernment in the matter of assisting Irish emigration be true or not, it is certain that the Government is going to make further efforts to promote it. It is quite clear—in fact, the Home Rulers acknowledge it—that there are parts of Ireland in which no legislation can improve the condition of the farmer, simply because the climate is wretched and the soil worse. The Parnellites would meet the difficulty by moving these people on to land which is now pasture or reclaimable bog, and are not deterred by the expense of the process, because they think the money for it ought to come out of the British Treasury. The British taxpayer, however, not unnaturally prefers emigration, and there can be no question which is best for the poor people themselves. A large proportion of those who have passed their lives trying to get subsistence out of the soil of Connemara have doubtless too little heart or hope left for very successful contention with the difficulties of the Canadian wilderness; but the lot of their children will be very different in Canada from what it would be under any conceivable circumstances at home.

The *Boston Advertiser*, which was dissatisfied with our explanation of the shoe and leather failures, undertook, in compliance with our request, to give one itself at an early day. It now appears that we must not explain this trouble on "general principles," whatever that may mean. Nor must we say that "the trouble is local"; on the contrary, we must admit that it is general. We must, moreover, perceive that the trouble has lasted for some time, and does not mend, and that the strongest cities and strongest trades have suffered most, and that the wonder is that the "feebler lines of business have not been blotted out or broken." The writer, moreover, boldly asserts that "the failures have been due to a falling market," which is something we presume none but the most hardened and unscrupulous would deny. The article says, too, that the trouble is not due to the cost of labor. At last it reaches the kernel of the whole, which is that "falling prices, and possibly an illegitimate fall in prices, are responsible for the present embarrassment, and the remedy is either a turn in the market, or the general adaptation of the low averages which rule in all price lists." The writer further daringly asserts that "the issues of the day are not so much about wealth and merchandise as about prices and market quotations." We do not know exactly what all this means, but we presume that it contains a suggestion of great value. It looks as if we were to have another article of the same sort, in answer to the searching question "And what makes these?" (i. e., prices and quotations). We cannot honestly say that we have learned yet what did cause the shoe and leather failures, in the last resort. We knew that they were caused proximately by a falling market, but this as an explanation seems to us like explaining a death by ascribing it to the cessation of the heart's action.

A statement by Dukes, written after his acquittal in his trial for the murder of Captain Nutt, has been published. He prepared it at the time when the state of

feeling against him in Uniontown was most bitter, and when he was conscious that his life was in constant peril. He intended it as a vindication of his conduct to be published after his death. It is mainly an attempt to show that he shot Nutt in self-defence, drawing his pistol only when he saw that Nutt was trying to draw his. Accepting his statements as true, they only bring out in clearer light than ever the fact that if neither man had been armed there would have been no murder.

There has been a typical social homicide at Luling, Texas, from which it appears that the clergy are beginning to catch it from the man-slayers. This, we trust, will lead to a more vigorous stand against murderers in the Southern pulpit. There is the usual somewhat comic side to this last tragedy, for it is said in the despatch that "no one blames Denman (the murderer), and yet the Rev. Mr. Sewell is regarded as the victim of a conspiracy, as he asserted in an ante-mortem statement." The reason why Denman is not considered blameworthy is probably that he acted under the belief that the minister had done him some domestic wrong. Indeed, in some parts of the South it seems to be assumed that a murdered man has no right to complain if his murderer believes, even mistakenly, that he merits death. In the Louisiana case, a clergyman was put to death by another clergyman and his brother in a most brutal manner because of some misunderstood gabble of a school-girl. In like manner Denman probably has misconstrued some other idle story and has slain Mr. Sewell without hearing him. Mr. Sewell was the local agent of the American Bible Society.

Not content with the very rough handling which the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin, President of Middlebury College, Vermont, has received through the press all over the country, for his utterly unwarranted assertions about the use of British gold for the promotion of the cause of free trade in this country, the reverend gentleman has again rushed into print—*Tribune*, August 5—in a very foolish manner. The proposition made by Mr. Thomas G. Shearman, that he would give \$5,000 to Middlebury College if Mr. Hamlin would prove his assertions, the College faculty to act as jurors, is characterized as "indecent," of which, he says, "I shall not be expected to take any notice." Turkey is, however, again produced as a warning and example of the depths of misery and woe to which a country can fall which adopts free trade as its commercial policy. That Turkey, even to this day, has no roads, no government guaranteeing security to life and property, no courts of justice, no general system of education, no banks, no honest money, no improved tools and implements of agriculture or other production, while its religion sanctions polygamy, and fanatically preaches hostility to all non-believers in the Mohammedan faith, counts for nothing in view of the fact that a low duty has been for many years levied on imports into that country. Some time ago the *Philadelphia North American* asserted that the columns of the *London Times* would show that some \$2,000,000 were subscribed in

England in 1844 for the publication and distribution of free-trade documents in this and other countries. We have called on the *North American* repeatedly to name the number and date of issue of the *Times* which contained this remarkable statement, but we have thus far called in vain. We are now informed privately, but we think on good authority, that the person who furnished the statement in question to the *North American* was Mr. Albert Bolles, Professor of Constitutional Law in the University of Pennsylvania; and we further note that Middlebury College, over which the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin presides, gave to Mr. Bolles, at its Commencement this summer, the honorary degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Senator Mahone, who speaks with all the confidence of a successful leader, declares that there can be no doubt about Republican success in 1884, and unhesitatingly maps out a course which will lead to it. He says the party must stand firm for protection, must pay off the public debt, and must use what money there is left to build up our State and common schools, thus educating the people. Toward the South he intimates that the Republican policy which has made him a leader should be continued. He says that President Arthur, "by his appointments to office," has "done more to eliminate sectional prejudices than any other man since the war." The Mahone way to complete reconciliation would undoubtedly be to distribute all the Federal patronage in the South among the Mahones, and have the Southern Republican party adopt the Southern view of repudiation.

Twenty Iowa Republicans have united in a formal protest against the position of their party on the prohibition question. The situation is a very peculiar one. Last year the people of the State adopted, by a large majority, a constitutional amendment not only prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors of all kinds, but prohibiting their manufacture as well. The Supreme Court declared the amendment invalid on account of some irregularities in its passage through the Legislature. When the Republican Convention met this year, the leaders of the party decided that it would be fatal to go against the expressed will of the people in the matter, and induced the Convention to declare in favor of the necessary legislation to secure another vote by the people. The platform even went further, and described the issue as one of the "home against the saloon," taking the ground that every man who opposed absolute prohibition was a friend of the saloon and an enemy of the home. Against this attitude the twenty Republicans protest. They state unflinchingly that the "mass of the people are intelligent, moral beings," and object to legislation which "makes no distinction between the few who are the slaves of strong drink" and "the many whose noblest manhood is insulted by the imputation that legal enactments are necessary for their protection from the consequences of such a vice."

Besides the Suez Canal, nothing has been lately exciting more party feeling in England

than what is known as the Ilbert Bill in India, which is a measure extending the criminal jurisdiction of native Hindoo judges of a certain rank to Europeans, who have hitherto only been triable before men of their own race. In India it has encountered almost frantic opposition from the English, but the Government has held firm, and the Liberals in England are now getting up a counter agitation in support of it. The Tories threatened to bring the question up in Parliament, but they forebore, and nobody has meddled with it there on that side but Mr. Ashmead Bartlett, who carries no weight. The bill is but a step, but a very important one, towards full recognition of the equality of the Hindoos with the whites before the law as British subjects. This equality has been often promised, but never completely granted. In fact, on this point there has been a certain likeness between the policy of the Porte toward the rayahs and that of the British Government toward the Hindoos. Great things have been done for them in the way of educating them and admitting them to office, but the white men have never been put on the same footing with them in the criminal courts, nor have they ever been allowed the same or nearly the same official salaries.

Mr. Gladstone has made one of those speeches at the Lord Mayor's dinner in the City at which Ministers are expected to tell so much and usually tell so little. He again promised that the troops should be withdrawn from Egypt, to which they had gone simply for the purpose of "accelerating reform," but he omitted to say when they would be withdrawn or how long the reform would take. His announcement, however, as it stands, will be very disappointing to the furious commercial Jingoos who held meetings the other day to denounce the Government for acknowledging M. de Lesseps's monopoly in the Suez Canal. One of them, Alderman Cotton, laid it down that "Egypt was our property," and that the Government could, therefore, do what it pleased about the canal, and need not pay any attention to the claims of M. de Lesseps, or to his rights under his concession. A franker expression of the brute-force theory, in fact, has not taken place in England for a long time, and it gives one a good idea of the difficulties which a Ministry that tries to be moral in its foreign policy has to contend with. Mr. Gladstone was very reassuring about the relations of the country with France, and was very jubilant and sanguine about the condition of Ireland, for the improvement in which he said "deep gratitude was due to the Almighty and secondarily to Earl Spencer." We think a good deal is due also to Carey, the informer, without whose aid Earl Spencer would not have accomplished much.

The position of the Suez Canal affair now is that M. de Lesseps has released Mr. Gladstone from his agreement, and Mr. Gladstone has suspended the execution of his scheme of having M. de Lesseps build the canal and lending him the money for the purpose, and the British Jingoos who were making such a hullabaloo about the affair three weeks ago have quieted

down, and become a little ashamed of themselves. The Khedive's law officers have given an opinion in favor of M. de Lesseps's claim, and so have the Lord Chancellor and the Attorney-General, but other good lawyers have given an opinion the other way, and, in fact, it may fairly be said that competent opinions on the legal interpretation of the concession are about equally divided. But there is no difference of opinion between the parties to the contract. The Khedive thinks he or his father gave M. de Lesseps a monopoly, and M. de Lesseps thinks he got a monopoly, and if Great Britain overruled them both in her own interest, it would simply be a very gross abuse of power. She does not profess to have conquered Egypt, and even if she had, could hardly, under any system of jurisprudence, undertake to construe the Khedive's contracts against the opinions of his own lawyers.

There appears to be still more or less uneasiness in Spain. There have been other risings of small bodies of troops, which have, however, been put down thus far without difficulty. The *Paris Temps*, which is an exceptionally well-informed paper on Spanish matters, says that the Spanish Republicans consider the situation a grave one, as several superior officers of the army are in favor of a republic, and are supported by the population of the towns. Unfortunately, however, there is probably no form of government which has not supporters among the superior officers of the Spanish army. When the republic was in existence, plenty of them were so much in favor of a monarchy that they made the republic impossible. There may now be enough of them in favor of a republic to make monarchy impossible. If they were agreed on anything, they would give Spain a settled government. But when anything goes wrong with a Spanish military man he thinks of revolution as a remedy. If his life is dull; if his promotion is slow; if rivals or enemies are in favor at court, nothing short of a revolution and a new constitution seems to him an adequate remedy. At present the malcontents are aided by the efforts of the Ministry to restore the public credit. This means an increase of taxation and a revision of the tariff, which offends the manufacturing provinces, particularly Catalonia, which is formidable when discontented for the same reason that it is industrially successful.

The news from Lima indicates that Chili has finally gained complete ascendancy over Peru, and that all the elements of opposition to Chilian control have been overcome. A great battle was fought on July 10, when all the opposing forces under the leadership of Caceres were routed, and since that time the Peruvian leaders have hastened to declare their loyalty to President Iglesias. The towns are following this example, and a better feeling is reported all through Peru at the prospect of peace after the long warfare. It is thought that a Congress will soon be assembled at Lima, when the treaty will be ratified and Peru evacuated by Chilian troops within three months.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 8, TO TUESDAY, AUGUST 14, 1883, INCLUSIVE.]

DOMESTIC.

THERE was great excitement in Wall Street on Monday and Tuesday owing to the rapid decline of stocks. One small failure was announced on Monday afternoon. On Tuesday morning the firm of G. W. Ballou & Co., brokers, of this city and Boston, suspended. It is believed that the losses of the firm are more than \$500,000. They had 3,400 shares of Denver and Rio Grande. It was rumored that unfortunate investments in Mexican Central stock led to the failure. There was almost a panic on the London Stock Exchange on Tuesday in American railway securities.

During Thursday afternoon there was a large demand by depositors on the First National Bank and Indiana Banking Company, of Indianapolis, Ind., and large amounts were drawn from both these institutions. The banks remained closed throughout Friday, until about 3 o'clock, when the doors of the National Bank were opened, W. H. English and other capitalists having come to the rescue. On Saturday a scheme for reorganization was announced, involving the doubling of the capital stock.

In the early morning hours of Wednesday the telegraphic communication of the Western Union Company to and from New York was seriously interrupted by the cutting of eighty-two wires on the Eastern, Northern, and Southern circuits. The company believed that the damage had been done by striking linemen. The Brotherhood expressed disapprobation of the deed. There were rumors on Friday of a movement on the part of the strikers looking to a compromise. One hundred more wires were reported cut on Saturday. Several more expert operators returned to work at Rochester and Buffalo. On Saturday and Sunday nights the cutting of wires was continued, with annoying effect. A meeting of a number of trades unions was held in this city on Sunday. They resolved to give material aid to the strikers. On Monday morning there was more cutting of wires. On Tuesday 136 wires of the Gold and Stock Telegraph Company, which supplies brokers with stock quotations in this city, were cut. A committee of the U. S. Senate has been investigating the strike in this city.

The receipts from the taxes on tobacco, cigars, etc., for the fiscal year ending June 30 show a falling off of \$5,287,339 as compared with last year. This is said to be due principally to the reduction in taxes which went into effect on May 1. The aggregate tobacco revenue for the year was \$12,104,249.

The monthly cotton-crop reports of Texas show that the prospect has been seriously injured by the drought.

President Arthur and his party were at Fort Washakie, Wyoming, on Wednesday. They had driven more than 150 miles in spring wagons, and had visited a mining camp and an Indian reservation. The President was reported as well and enjoying his vacation. On Thursday the party again started on their journey, this time on horseback. Daily reports of his progress have been received. The party was at Terry's Lake, Wyoming, on Tuesday.

It is reported on good authority that a commercial treaty has for some time existed between Germany and Mexico. The Second Secretary of the Mexican legation in Washington says that all stories to the effect that it contains an offensive and defensive clause are entirely without foundation. The treaty, he says, is substantially of the same character as that recently entered into between the United States and Mexico, and is designed solely to promote the commercial relations between the two countries.

Attorney-General Brewster has written an important opinion in reply to a question sub-

mitted by Secretary Folger regarding the payment of interest on money borrowed by the State of New York during the war of the rebellion for the enrollment, subsistence, and clothing of troops. Pennsylvania, Ohio, and several other Northern States have presented claims of a similar character, which involve hundreds of thousands of dollars in taxes. He decides, after a careful review of the act of July 27, 1861 (which provides for the payment by the Secretary of the Treasury, out of any money not otherwise appropriated, to the Governor or authorized agent of any State the costs properly incurred in raising its troops for the suppression of the rebellion), that the claim of New York does not come within the scope of the act.

A telegram was received at the Treasury Department in Washington on Wednesday from the Collector of Customs at Tacoma, Washington Territory, announcing that his officers, with the assistance of the revenue steamer *Walcott*, had captured a sloop engaged in running Chinese across the line from British Columbia. Two smugglers were arrested, but nine of the Chinese passengers escaped. The Collector also said that nearly 100 Chinamen had landed at various points on the northern frontier in boats and Indian canoes within the past few days, and that he is powerless to prevent their landing unless his force is largely increased.

Postmaster Pearson, of New York, has determined, on the authorization of Postmaster-General Gresham, to send the mails for Great Britain and Ireland, and the closed mails for the continent of Europe, which are forwarded by way of England and Belgium, by the steamers which, according to the record of previous voyages, will get them across at the earliest date. The practice heretofore has been to send these mails by the steamers which sailed first from New York.

The National party of New Jersey, after a turbulent meeting at Asbury Park on Thursday, nominated Benjamin Uner, of Union County, for Governor. A temperance plank in the proposed platform was dropped.

The Ohio Liquor Dealers' Protective Association, at a meeting in Toledo on Thursday, passed resolutions condemning the Scott law, the proposed amendments to the Constitution, and the Republican party. It resolved to act with the Democrats in the coming campaign.

Twenty well-known Republicans, residents of Delaware County, Iowa, have signed a document protesting against the Iowa Republican State platform and pledging all honorable efforts to defeat it. They say: "We are not unmindful of the evils of intemperance, but we realize the truth that the mass of the people are intelligent, moral beings, and we deny the wisdom of any legislation on this subject which in its practical workings makes no distinction between the few who are slaves of strong drink, and therefore proper subjects of legislative care, and the many whose noblest manhood is insulted by the imputation that legal enactments are necessary for their protection from the consequences of such a vice."

The Maryland Republican State Convention has been called to meet in Baltimore on September 27, to nominate candidates for Governor, Comptroller, and Attorney General.

The Grand Jury of Baltimore threw a bombshell into the Democratic camp on Monday by returning presentments as follows: An indictment against Wm. Pinkney Whyte, Mayor, and ex-officio President of the Fire Board; Thomas W. Campbell, Charles B. Shingluff, Samuel Hannah, and B. E. Smith, for malfeasance in office while acting as Board of Fire Commissioners, for knowingly permitting the sale to the city of material in violation of the Baltimore city code, and at prices so far in advance of the fair market value as to constitute a fraud on the city.

Governor Hamilton, of Maryland, has given to the press a five-column address to the peo-

ple of the State, making several startling disclosures about the conduct of the last three Democratic Legislatures, and showing improper expenditures of State funds aggregating \$500,000. After speaking in the most bitter manner of an oligarchy of bosses controlling the Maryland Democracy, meaning thereby United States Senator Arthur P. Gorman and his followers, the Governor says that since 1879, in several instances, the taxes and revenues of the State have not been paid over by the collection officers; that hundreds of thousands of dollars have been annually due from them for years, and that looseness, disorder, and confusion everywhere prevail. Instead of yielding a revenue, or even maintaining themselves, the oyster and the tobacco services are serious charges upon the Treasury. The delinquent officers, many of them well-known politicians, now owe the State \$772,738 08.

The American Forestry Congress met at St. Paul, Minn., on Wednesday, Dr. Geo. B. Loring presiding. A report was adopted recommending to the members of the Congress from their respective States the importance of establishing experimental forestry stations; that the Congress memorialize Legislatures of the different States, urging upon them the practicability of establishing these stations, and that the Ohio plan of organizing such stations be recommended as best suited to the circumstances. The Congress closed its sessions on Friday.

The second annual National Education Assembly met at Ocean Grove, N. J., on Thursday. Two thousand persons were present. Addresses were made by Gen. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, and J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania. On Saturday the topic of Indian Education was discussed, and a long letter on the subject from Mr. Teller, Secretary of the Interior, was read.

Reports from Chicago were published on Friday that secret agents of the Canadian Government had been for some time in that city shadowing prominent Irish Nationalists, and that they had positive information of a design to destroy the Welland Canal by the use of explosives. It was further asserted that a request had been made to the United States Government to assist in thwarting the alleged conspiracy.

A letter written by Dukes, the Uniontown, Pa., murderer, when it seemed likely that his life would be taken, has just been printed. It defends his killing of Captain Nutt on the ground of self-defence, saying that he abstained from using his pistol when Nutt entered his room and attacked him, until Nutt called for help and he felt his own life to be in danger.

Hubert O. Thompson, Commissioner of Public Works, presented a report to the Croton Aqueduct Commission of this city on Wednesday. It estimated the cost of a dam and reservoir at Quaker Bridge at \$4,000,000, the reservoir having an area of 3,635 acres, and a capacity of 32,000,000 gallons. The line of the proposed aqueduct from the dam is 31.89 miles long, and the total cost of dam, reservoir, and aqueduct is estimated at about \$19,400,000. About three and one-half years would be required to make the aqueduct available. The report was ordered printed, and no further action was taken.

Gen. W. J. Palmer tendered his resignation as President of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad to the Board of Directors, on Thursday, and it was accepted. It was due to other business interests which occupied his time.

Vineyard Haven, Mass., was almost destroyed by a fire which broke out on Saturday night, and was not checked until 3 o'clock on Sunday morning. All the stores in the place but one are burned, and a great many summer guests were turned out of doors. The territory burned over embraces about fifty acres of

the heart of the village, and the disaster leaves hundreds of people homeless, many of whom are thrown upon the charity of their neighbors.

The Kimball House at Atlanta, Ga., the largest hotel in the South, was burned on Sunday morning. The guests of the house all escaped. The loss is about \$1,000,000.

FOREIGN.

There were fresh outbreaks in Spain on Wednesday. The Numancia cavalry regiment revolted at Santo Domingo, near Logroño, Spain. The rebels left the town and went in the direction of Najera. Several groups of workmen near Barcelona raised seditious cries, and then fled to the mountains. A hastily summoned Cabinet Council, at Madrid, resolved to suspend constitutional guarantees and declare a state of siege throughout Spain. Military precautions were adopted in Madrid. There were fears of an outbreak in Republican interests at various of the principal towns. On Thursday the Spanish garrison at Seo de Urgel revolted. The rebels expelled the military Governor of the town. On Friday ten battalions of infantry and six batteries were sent to Seo de Urgel to suppress the outbreak. They restored order. Great agitation prevailed in Barcelona on that day, and the situation was serious. A slight revolt took place among the prisoners in the penitentiary in the city of Santander, capital of the province of that name, but it was promptly suppressed. On Friday afternoon the King and Queen arrived at Madrid and were received with enthusiasm. On Saturday complete tranquillity was announced throughout the peninsula. It was reported from Madrid that the outbreaks were a part of a scheme which Ruiz Zorilla had been planning for six years. Señor Castelar and his party condemn the uprising. It was rumored on Tuesday that the King had summoned Marshal Serrano to form a new Ministry, but it was not confirmed.

Mr. Gladstone, in a speech at the Lord Mayor's banquet in London on Wednesday night, said the Government had gone to Egypt in an unselfish spirit, and desired simply to accelerate reform there. It was felt that too much haste might spoil the work. When the views of the Government in this respect were accomplished, the British would disappear from the country. In regard to the Tamatave affair, Mr. Gladstone said the Government had received fuller advices from Madagascar, confirming the hope that no difficulty existed which could not be solved by generous and honorable dispositions, which should always exist, especially between France and England. Mr. Gladstone said he was thankful to be able to record the great change in the condition of affairs in Ireland. The authority of the law, he said, had been reasserted there, and peace and security prevailed. Deep gratitude was due to the Almighty, and, secondarily, to Earl Spencer, the Lord Lieutenant, and Mr. Trevelyan, the Chief Secretary.

There was a long debate, characterized by much obstruction on the part of the Irish members, in the House of Commons on Monday night, on a vote for the legal expenses incurred in the recent criminal prosecutions in Ireland. Mr. Harrington, member for Westmeath, alleged that Myles Joyce, who was found guilty and executed for participating in the murder of the Joyce family in County Galway, on September 18, 1882, was judicially murdered, despite the fact that evidence of his innocence was accessible to Earl Spencer, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Mr. Parnell, as a protest against the conduct of the Government, moved that the amount of money provided for in the appropriation be reduced, but his motion was defeated by 24 yeas to 93 nays.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday night the Bankruptcy Bill and the National Debt Bill passed their third reading, and the Tramways (Ireland) Bill passed its second reading.

The latter bill provides for a Government guarantee of £1,000,000 for opening up the western districts of Ireland by light steam tramways.

The bill prohibiting pigeon shooting has passed its third reading in the British House of Commons. On Friday night the Corrupt Practices Bill passed its third reading.

A meeting in favor of state-aided emigration was held at the Mansion House, London, on Friday. The Earl of Shaftesbury presided. A resolution was adopted providing for the sending of 200,000 persons to Canada and other British colonies, and for procuring farms for them in their new homes, the money for the purchase of the land to be advanced by the state, which is to take mortgages on the farms as security for payment. It is proposed to send 10,000 families to Canada next spring.

Dr. Robert Moffat, the father-in-law of Livingstone, the explorer, and for half a century a celebrated missionary in Africa, died in England on Friday. He was more than eighty years of age.

In the trial of the Liverpool dynamite conspirators on Wednesday, the Judge ruled that there was no case against O'Herlihy on the main charge of treason-felony, and he was formally acquitted, but detained on minor counts. The other cases went to the jury. Featherstone, Deasy, Flannigan, and Dalton were found guilty and sentenced to penal servitude for life, on Thursday. O'Herlihy, on Friday, was charged with conspiracy to murder, but as the Crown presented no testimony against him he was released.

The Paris *Temps* asserts that Admiral Pierre, whose conduct at Tamatave toward the British Consul and others caused much feeling in England, has asked to be replaced forthwith, owing to the poor condition of his health. Rear-Admiral Gailber has been appointed to succeed him. Letters from Madagascar say that Mr. Shaw, the British missionary, was arrested for concealing two Hova spies. It is reported that 3,000 French reinforcements will be sent to Madagascar and 600 to Reunion. The London *Standard* on Tuesday asserted that recent despatches from Madagascar fully confirm the first accounts of the outrages. It calls for explanations from France.

It is reported in Paris that the attention of Mr. Morton, the United States Minister in France, has been called to the fact that America is furnishing China with arms and ammunition, which it is believed are destined for Tonquin.

The mandarins at Hué, the capital of Anam, have refused to recognize Phudac, who was nominated as successor to the throne of the late King Tuduc. They have, it was announced on Wednesday, proclaimed Vianlan King in his stead. He is the nominee of the war party.

Mr. Charles Bismarck, French Minister of Marine, tendered his resignation on Wednesday on account of ill health. On Friday it was announced that he was succeeded by Vice-Admiral Peyron.

An election for members of the Councils-General was held throughout France on Sunday. It resulted in a Republican victory in seventy-nine of the ninety districts.

A meeting of the Board of Directors of the Suez Canal Company, at which the British members were present, was held in Paris on Wednesday. The Board unanimously approved the letter of M. de Lesseps of July 23 to Mr. Gladstone.

The Comte de Chambord is reported to be again in a critical condition.

At noon on Wednesday the Emperors of Germany and Austria arrived at Ischl. The former had been met at Ebensee by the latter, where cordial greetings were exchanged. The meeting was ended on Thursday.

It was reported from Berlin on Saturday that the Austrian, German, and Turkish Gov-

ernments are engaged in negotiations for the complete annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria.

It is announced that six persons, including four officials, will be prosecuted for the part they played in the Jewish trial at Nyiregyhaza, Hungary. Louis Kossuth has written a letter congratulating the counsel who defended the Jews. Riotous demonstrations against the house of one of the defendants in the trial were renewed on Wednesday. It was wrecked and a number of Jewish shops in the neighborhood were plundered. The rioting continued until Thursday morning, and thirty-two of the participants were arrested. Moritz Scharf, the boy who was the principal witness of the prosecution, and who swore that he saw the murder committed in the synagogue, has confessed that his testimony was false. The riots were renewed on Friday night.

Three hundred workmen attempted to make a demonstration before the office of the Director of Police, in Vienna, on Friday evening, because of the seizure of a workmen's news paper. The mob was dispersed by a large body of police with drawn swords.

The festive celebration on Wednesday at Erfurt, Germany, of Martin Luther's entry into that town was a great success. An historical procession traversed the streets and excited much admiration.

The Senate of Bremen has concluded a convention with the German Government for the entry of that city into the Zollverein.

Prof. William Dindorf, the Leipzig critic and philologist, is dead at the age of seventy-nine.

The improvement in the cholera epidemic at Cairo continues. About five-sixths of the hospital patients now recover. A deplorable condition of affairs has, however, been discovered at the mad house there, where thirty-two deaths occurred in four days among 250 inmates. A riot broke out in the Labat quarter of Alexandria on Friday night in consequence of a report that the English doctors were poisoning the natives. The mob attempted to destroy the ambulances, crying, "Death to the Christians." Troops quelled the outbreak. The death rate at Alexandria is increasing. On Monday there were forty-four victims.

The river Nile is rising and has already damaged the crops in Egypt.

Within the last two years about fifty vessels have been stranded in the Straits of Kerch, Black Sea. It now appears that there has been collusion between the pilots and a band of pirates, who charged great sums for assisting vessels in distress.

The Czar's coronation decree, granting liberty of worship to dissenters, only affects 1,000,000 of so-called registered dissenters. There are 14,000,000 still unrelieved of their religious disabilities.

The trial at Tournay, Belgium, of Canon Bernard, on a charge of abstracting valuable papers and securities from the Episcopal Palace at Tournay, was concluded on Saturday morning. The Canon was found not guilty.

Cetewayo's brother asserts that the King took refuge in an isolated kraal after the late battle, and was not killed, as previously announced, but was severely wounded. The Governor of Natal has telegraphed a similar report to England. On Saturday it was telegraphed that he was on his way to Pietermaritzburg.

Mail advices from Port-au-Prince, Hayti, dated July 24, assert that the country is in a very agitated condition. The Government is penniless and business is at a complete standstill. The town of Jacmel has pronounced in favor of revolution. A great battle has been fought before Jeremie, in which the Government troops were defeated, and seven of their generals were taken and executed. The revolutionists are marching on Leogane.

WALL STREET.

IF anybody should attempt to write a book on Wall Street in imitation of Mr. Bagehot's 'Lombard Street,' he would find the composition of a lucid work an exceedingly difficult task. "The Street" begins to play a larger and larger part in the financial world, owing to the enormous amounts of American capital it holds and of foreign capital it distributes. Since the subsidence, too, of war politics it occupies a larger and larger share of the attention of the American people.

Nothing is more curious about it than its effect on the imagination even of those who do not speculate in stocks at all. The great hotel-keepers in places like Saratoga rely on it with the utmost confidence as an indication of the kind of season they are likely to have. If stocks are high in Wall Street, they are certain their houses will be full; if low, that they will either lose money or fail to make any money, and this not because their customers are persons who are dependent for their luxuries on the result of speculative operations, but because when stocks are low, people who never go near Wall Street feel poor through the imagination. People who never speculate at all, whose investments are of the best class, who have nothing in their safes the dividends on which are likely to be in the least affected by any ups and downs on "the Street," feel, when they see the price of their securities falling, as if they must be prudent or economize. They not only deny themselves on their summer tours, but in all their luxuries. The contagion even reaches people who own no stocks at all. A falling market diffuses through the air the feeling that it is time to be thrifty and careful, and that there is no knowing what is going to happen; that even the man who has nothing to lose is somehow in danger of losing something.

In fact, the Wall Street stock quotations have on a large body of people at the North somewhat the effect of a thermometer on a hot day on the fancy of the wayfarer. It is a very common experience for a man who has felt quite comfortable with the thermometer at 95 degrees, to be made nervous, and even alarmed and incapacitated for all further exertion, by seeing the figures himself. He suddenly feels much hotter and more languid, and begins to be afraid to move about.

The exhilarating effect of high prices is, too, just as great as the depressing effect of low prices. There is hardly any one, whether he owns any stocks or is speculating in stocks or not, who is not cheered by a rising market in Wall Street. Everybody in New York, when it has lasted a week or two, from the millionaire to the hod-carrier, feels that good times have come, that his future is more assured, that he may indulge in more luxuries, although he may know perfectly well that the condition of the stock market has not, and cannot have, the smallest influence on his income. The brokers feel the genial glow first, and provide themselves with dog-carts and saddle-horses, and from them it diffuses itself rapidly through the community, till it is felt wherever the telegraph goes. It stimulates retail purchases of all kinds, from houses down to gloves. It increases in par-

ticular the consumption of champagne at the restaurants. Delmonico can always tell how the market is, without ever looking at the newspapers or "the ticker," by listening to the popping of his corks.

There is nothing quite like this in any country in the world. We do not propose to analyze its causes here. We merely wish to point out that the phenomenon probably has a good deal to do with the prevailing depression in business, of which so much complaint is made and for which it seems so difficult to account. For two years the conditions of business prosperity have all existed in abundance. There has been no great financial disturbance or political complication at home or abroad. The harvests have been abundant and immigration enormous, and everything dependent on abundant harvests—the railroad traffic, for instance—has been doing well. But stocks have been "dull" ever since Garfield's death, and have been growing duller, and it apparently makes no difference whether they pay dividends or not. The general tendency during all this period has been downward, although there is no proof that they are any less valuable now than they were in 1881. In fact, the probabilities are that they are much more valuable than they were two years ago. But it has, nevertheless, been impossible to get up a "boom" in them, and nothing could be more ludicrous than the failure of all prophecies of an approaching period of "better prices." We have been told for about a dozen times within the last two years that "the liquidation," whatever that is, was over; that the bottom had been reached; that "the weak holders," against whom "the raids" are always aimed, were "shaken out," and that now we were going to see signs of confidence—but all in vain. The market has been "dull," or "stagnant," or "feverish and declining," or "sagging," or "ragged," with dreary persistence.

That the effect of this has been to produce general business blueness or despondency we think there can be no question. Whether stocks are high or low in Wall Street cannot make any real difference to anybody but speculators as long as they are not gaining or losing in intrinsic value, and yet nearly everybody is affected by it. It restricts consumption in all but the necessities. It makes capitalists timid and doubtful, and, by keeping a good deal of money lying idle, lowers the interest on all investments, and makes people of fixed incomes feel poor and economical. Altogether it may fairly be pronounced one of the strangest phenomena of modern times. Whether it will pass away—that is, whether the commercial imagination of the country will ever throw off the Wall Street influence—it is, of course, impossible to guess. It will certainly never do so as long as the habit of speculation lasts, and the habit of speculation will probably last as long as the country is growing so rapidly in wealth and population. As long as people see stocks which brought five dollars last year bringing eighty this year, speculation will be rife, and they will see this as long as the country progresses by "leaps and bounds." And it is the speculation which invites the raids and combinations on the part of the great operators, that, by frightening

the outside public, produces these periods of depression. The professional operators could not possibly make anything off regular investors. They lie in wait for the people who take "turns" and "flyers" in the Street, just as lions and tigers wait at the pools and rivers for the cattle and sheep and deer to come down to drink in the evening. When they think there are enough of them collected to make a spring profitable, "the raid" is made. But the cattle and sheep and deer continue to come because each animal loves water, and thinks he will secure his drink and get away before the beast of prey notices him.

THE STRIKE AND THE MONOPOLY.

THE controversy over the telegraphers' strike does not grow any clearer. The *Times* now says it has been all along in favor of freedom of contract. But freedom of contract covers both parties to the strike: it leaves the operators free to go, and the Company free to do without them. This, as we understand it, the *Times* has never allowed. It has held that the Company was under some sort of obligation to take the strikers back on their own terms, or something approaching their own terms, and has abused it for not fulfilling this obligation. We have endeavored to discover on what the obligation rested in the *Times's* mind, and have been driven to the conclusion that it rests on the badness of the Western Union managers as speculators and stock-waterers. We have said that this notion probably originated in a nursery, because it would naturally occur to a child that a good way of punishing a wicked rich man was to make him pay high wages to his servants.

We, for our part, are also in favor of freedom of contract. We believe the strikers have a right to leave if the Company has the right to get along without them. But we hold that if one party is under an obligation to the public, or to anybody else, to keep on telegraphing, so is the other party. Both are bound by it, and therefore all attempts to harass the Company into surrender, either by legal process or oburgation, while leaving the strikers to do as they please, are an abandonment of the theory of freedom of contract, and a great absurdity into the bargain. On any theory, too, of the relation of the parties, it is in our mind preposterous to ask the Company to share with a committee of outsiders the control of the persons in its service.

The *Herald* makes confusion a little greater, we are sorry to say, by proposing a board of arbitration established by joint agreement, which should "take notice of the fact that the Western Union insists on earning a dividend on watered stock." This phrase, "earning a dividend on watered stock," in which so many newspapers delight, is simply a roundabout way of saying that its profits are large. "Watering stock" is usually resorted to either for the purpose of making the property more divisible for purposes of sale, or for concealing the real amount of the profits, or for both. It is only when done for the second of these objects that it is in the least reprehensible. Whether a Company pays 40 per cent. on 1,000 shares or 20 on 2,000 is in itself a question of no moment, so

that what the *Herald's* board would have "to take notice of" is simply the fact that the profits of the Western Union are large. The opinion that the profits of corporations serving the public ought to be cut down, by returning to the community everything over a good interest, either in taxation or a reduction of rates, is gaining ground both in England and France, as well as here. The last *Pall Mall Gazette* advocates it in a way which indicates that it will be, or is, a feature in the Radical programme in England. But we have not heard until now that anything over the maximum was to be legally devoted to raising wages, or, in other words, was to be bestowed on one class of the community only. Nor have we heard until now that a man or a company was bound to pay wages in proportion to his profits. How would the *Herald* like to have that rule applied to its own business? It is a large and prosperous concern of which the dividends are understood to be enormous. How would it like to have itself compelled by law to make the wages of its employees proportionate to the amount of its net earnings, or to have all its brethren begin abusing it because it did not admit a trade union to a share in the management of its office? There are, in fact, the seeds of great and far-reaching mischief in the way this affair has recently been treated by some of our contemporaries. If it turns out that they have raised the devil with their "sympathy," they will not suffer as other branches of trade and industry will, but we trust they will be sorry. We have no doubt the Western Union has been wanting in consideration for its employees; but the question involved in the strike is not whether the managers are kind or considerate employers, or good men, but whether they are paying the market rate of wages, and most of the talk expended on their moral qualities is therefore, to say the least, irrelevant.

On the other hand, the Western Union has now apparently got the better of the strikers, and can conduct its business once more in its own way. That it should have firmly and successfully resisted the strike is doubtless a sign of administrative ability on the part of its managers. But it will do well to remember that the non-occurrence of strikes among employees is a sign of good administration also. The captain of the ship who puts down a mutiny energetically is usually considered a good commander, but the captain who never has any mutiny to put down is considered a better one. Discontent among subordinates in a large concern always indicates something wrong, no matter how mistaken or foolish their way of expressing it may be. Probably no strike on a large scale has ever yet occurred in which the right was all on one side. Generally, as we remarked at the beginning of this Western Union trouble, the right is about equally divided between the parties to the controversy. The managers, therefore, will do well not to regard difference between them and their employees settled by the result of the strike. Even if it be impossible in the interest of discipline to hear or treat with the employees through the Brotherhood, the Company ought to provide

or recognize some channel through which the complaints or remonstrances of the operators can be received and considered without prejudice to the persons from whom they emanate. We see that it is now said that the operators will be heard and dealt with individually, but they ought not to be asked to make their complaints individually. To stand forth alone as a malcontent is something which requires a good deal of courage, and it is a trial to which the timid and nervous should not be obliged to expose themselves. Employees ought to be allowed to present their grievances collectively, and through some sort of representative body. In fact, we do not see how a well-managed corporation, which employs large bodies of men, can avoid desiring the creation of some representation of its work-people, through which it could be readily made acquainted with their feelings, and with which a discussion of their grievances could be readily carried on when necessary.

The Western Union will do well, moreover, to bear in mind that its responsibility is increased by the fact that it enjoys a virtual monopoly of the telegraphic business in the United States—a fact which enables it to fix the wages of operators in this country, and which from the first rendered the strike hopeless. The ordinary remedy of the dissatisfied laborer, therefore—seeking work elsewhere—is not open to the operator. If he cannot make terms with the Western Union, he has hardly any other resource. It is under no business obligation to give up this advantage, but it is bound to remember, in dealing with its laborers, that it possesses it. It is not bound, as has been maintained, to pay them well in consideration of the badness of its own managers, but it is bound by a due regard for its own interests to avoid these public fights with them, to keep them satisfied and faithful, not by surrendering to their threats, but by anticipating their discontent.

This last affair has undoubtedly had the effect of greatly stimulating the demand for Government competition. That this will come before long we have not the slightest doubt. A larger and larger number of people are beginning to see that Government competition is the only one which will ever prove effective against the Western Union, and the only remedy for whatever inconveniences arise from having the telegraphy of the country in the hands of one corporation. The Western Union has found so little difficulty for many years in destroying competition by buying out competitors, that the creation of rival companies for the express purpose of being sold out to it, after a period of fictitious activity and furious denunciation of monopolies, has long been a favorite device of tricky financiers. In fact, the corporation is largely made up of these purchased champions of popular rights. What we need now is a Government telegraph, in connection with the Post-office, to compete with the commercial corporations. All that denunciation of the greed and unscrupulousness of Jay Gould and Cyrus W. Field and others can do for us has been done. We hear nothing of any signs of wincing on their part under the terrible epithets of the Anti-Monopolists.

THE USE OF GOING TO COLLEGE.

THE views propounded by Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., before the Phi Beta Kappa Society in Cambridge, in July, on college education, having been published in a pamphlet form, have been receiving renewed discussion from the press. His complaint is now pretty well known. It is that he spent a great deal of time at college learning Greek, without succeeding; that the notion that there is mental discipline in it is a delusion, and that modern languages ought to be substituted for the dead languages in the college course for all who prefer them, as furnishing a better equipment for the work of life, and just as good means of intellectual training. He does not, at the same time, underrate the advantages of a "classical education" for those who get it; the trouble is, he says, that the colleges profess to give it, and do not give it—at all events, have not given it to him, or any of his family or friends. He would, therefore, allow students, on coming up for entrance, to offer German, Spanish, French, or Italian as the equivalent of Hebrew, Greek, or Latin. His grievance, in the last analysis, is really an old one in a new form. It is that a college education does not prepare a young man more directly and appropriately for any of the callings in which college-bred men, except perhaps clergymen, are likely to engage. In other words, when they leave college their knowledge is either insufficient or is the wrong kind of knowledge.

He has unfortunately, in his address, however, overlooked or treated but very slightly what is, in our eyes, the main point in the discussion—namely, how far any curriculum which is not strictly professional or technical can be made a direct preparation for the work of life. An assumption runs through his argument which also runs through nine-tenths of the talk and writing of educational reformers, and that is, that if you get hold of the right kind of curriculum and of the right method of presenting it, you can teach young people anything you please. The fact is, however, that the great difficulty of colleges is not the difficulty of selecting the right kind of knowledge to offer, but the difficulty of getting the young men to acquire it. It cannot be driven into them by main force. Their minds have to be reached through their own industry, teachableness, and eagerness to learn. In the large colleges here in the East, as well as in the European colleges, the undergraduates may be divided into three classes. First, there are those who, either from natural love of learning or a desire to make a career which will better their condition, are determined to make any sacrifice to acquire all the knowledge the college offers. This is a small body of men, generally poor, who probably get out of the study of the classics all that it would be possible for them to get out of any study. The second is composed of those who simply want to get a degree, with a respectable standing in the class, without annoyance or disappointment to their parents, but are not specially zealous or industrious, and cannot by any art known to educators be pushed beyond a certain jog-trot. Last of all there are the regular idlers, and dunces, and scapegraces, who are the af-

fluction of families and the despair of professors and deans. We do not believe we exaggerate when we say that these last two classes make up seventy per cent. of the undergraduates of Yale and Harvard, and of every other large college, and that it makes very little difference with what species of knowledge you ply them, as far as preparation for the work of life is concerned. They will only take a certain amount of any kind of knowledge. Mr. Adams's notion that they would leave college proficient in French and German, if they got a chance at those languages instead of Greek and Latin, and would keep up their acquaintance with them in after life, we hold to be a chimera. When busy with callings in which French or German were not called for every day, they would forget them as they do Greek or Latin—not so completely, perhaps, but so far as to make knowledge of them a mere pretence.

The great mass of young men who go to college do not see in college a preparation for active life, and therefore do not take hold of its studies with real apprehensive power. Partly owing to their age, partly to the uncertainty as to what calling they will take up, in which most of them pass the years between sixteen and twenty-one, it is not possible to give college that sort of reality in their eyes which is necessary to make them really assimilate the knowledge it offers. Everything about it has to them an air of remoteness from the world—the subjects, the professors, the discipline, the rules and regulations. This is curiously illustrated by the change which comes over a great many of them when they enter the law or medical or other professional schools, after taking the academical degree, and realize that they are actually engaged in direct preparation for practice. Everything which these schools teach, whether it be languages or anything else, has the highest interest for them, and is not only rapidly appropriated, as far as each man's powers will permit, but is sedulously retained.

If it be asked what good a college education does under these circumstances, the answer, which Mr. Adams in one place almost gives, is, that it does nearly all the good an ordinary young man at that time of life is capable of receiving. It is difficult to do more for the typical young man than expose him to right influences, or, in other words, keep him, while he is getting into shape both physically and intellectually, in a society which is occupied with intellectual things, which is not trying to make money or get the better of anybody, which encourages reflection, respects acquisition, and occupies itself more or less with high ideals. To do much more than this, we should have not simply to improve or change the college curriculum, but take complete possession of a boy, in military fashion, as West Point or Annapolis does, and train him both physically and mentally in all his working hours; teach him to walk and run, and ride and row, to dress and to behave, while actually getting him ready for a profession. No college can, however, undertake anything of the kind, nor is it desirable that it should. Military schools do wonders with raw youths, but they are hardly better fitted to prepare them for the ordinary race

of civil life than Harvard or Yale. Nor is a counting-house or store a much better preparation than a university. There is more waste of time in a boy's first years in business than in any period in a well-behaved man's life. A large part of them are passed in mere mechanical drudgery, over things which are readily learned in three months, and in company which does nothing to stimulate or elevate either intellectually or morally. The apprenticeship, in fact, is simply dreary waiting for the time when the lad can be trusted to do, or has the means to do, what he has been supposed to be getting ready for—namely, the purchase and sale of commodities. For this, or anything else, copying letters and running errands, which is what most mercantile training in the early stage now consists in, is but a poor preparation.

Mr. Adams, moreover, has taken no notice of the experience of the Berlin University in the ten years since the admission of the pupils of the *Real-schulen*, or technical schools, as well as the pupils of the gymnasias or classical and mathematical academies, to the University. From their published report on the subject, which we examined in these columns some two years ago, it appears that in all kinds of university work, including the higher mathematics, the pupils from the classical schools surpass the non-classical students. The Professor of Astronomy, in particular, says: "The students prepared at the real-schools show at first more knowledge and more skill than those prepared at the gymnasias, but their further development is slower, more superficial, and less independent, while they show still greater inferiority in point of ability to carry on the more difficult processes of independent research." The professors of chemistry tell the same story as the professors of mathematics and astronomy. The whole report is most interesting, and in spite of the sad experience of the Adams family, on which Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., relies so much, goes far to show that as a mental process even the unsuccessful study of Greek and Latin has a great deal more value than he is willing to admit.

BRITISH ENTERPRISE.

THE files of the London papers for the first week in August are filled with enthusiastic accounts of the success of the new addition to the British mail service called the "Parcels Post." Column after column is devoted to minute accounts of its practical workings, and many more columns to profoundly speculative disquisitions on the effects which it will have upon the moral, social, and economic life of the great British public. In a few instances, guarded references are made to the fact that services of a similar kind have been in operation for some time in other parts of the world, but generally the subject is discussed with that curious unconsciousness of what the rest of the world is doing which is so striking a characteristic of the British mind. The new service is treated with great impressiveness as a purely original reform. The *Times* remarks, in its most ponderous manner, that the measure has been advocated for some years by

the "Society of Arts, the Social Science Association, and such cool and independent thinkers as the late Professor Jevons," but that the most judicious advocates would have pleaded long in vain "if increased intimacy with Continental habits and institutions, and especially the union of the greater part of Europe into one district for postal purposes, had not forced the subject on public attention." That is the nearest approach made to an admission that in establishing its "Parcels Post" England is simply trying to push up abreast with the rest of the world.

There is absolutely nothing new in its new service. Similar services have been in successful operation in Germany, France, Belgium, Holland, and other countries for many years. There may be a few points of difference in minor details, but the general plan is the same in all. The British "innovation" simply enables the British public to send by mail any package under seven pounds in weight and not exceeding six feet in combined length and girth. There are five rates of postage. Parcels a pound in weight go for 3d.; three pounds for 6d.; five pounds for 9d.; and seven pounds for 1s. The rates are the same for all distances, and this is the main point of difference between the system and that of some other countries. In this country the same service is done to a limited extent by our "merchandise" or "fourth-class" mail, but mainly by our express companies. Mail matter here is limited to packages not exceeding four pounds, and the mail is only used in sending packages at all when the distance is so great as to make the rate of one cent an ounce cheaper than express rates. The express has been our main dependence for more than forty years, and has been doing, with great convenience to the public and with profit to itself, substantially the same business which the new post will do in England.

For some reason or other not altogether apparent, there are no expresses of this kind in England. One of the London papers, the *Daily News*, refers to them as an American institution by which may be transported "anything, from a bunch of bank notes to a genuine dome-back Saratoga trunk, which is something in appearance between Noah's ark and H. M. S. *Inflexible*." The *Times* trenches carefully upon the same fact by saying that "Englishmen travelling abroad have learned with surprise that their trunks and boxes could be sent about," and the "national pride in the perfection of our own arrangements has been somewhat shaken." The time which has been necessary to shake this pride even "somewhat" is best shown by the fact that express companies were established in the United States in 1839, and have been growing steadily in usefulness ever since. Ten years ago the capital employed in the business amounted to more than \$25,000,000. The number of separate offices exceeded 8,000; more than 18,000 men and about 3,500 horses were employed, and the distance travelled on the various railways was estimated at 300,000 miles a day. Immense fortunes have been made in the business. But during all these years the enlightened English people have scrambled along

without any service at all, and thousands of them have examined the American system with no other result than having their pride in the "perfection of their own arrangements somewhat shaken."

After waiting so long before entering upon this field of reform, it is not at all strange that the British public should treat the experiment with great solemnity. The London reviews are moved to the most profound reflections. The *Spectator* declares boldly that it thinks the change "worked in the conditions of social life" will "benefit the nation as a whole." It is afraid the "shopkeepers of villages and small towns" are likely to lose custom, and enters into an abstruse calculation on the problem of whether it will be cheaper to buy seven pounds of sugar in London for two shillings and pay a shilling postage on it, or buy it in the country at a little higher price and save the postage. On the other hand, while the country storekeeper may lose in one way, he may gain in another; for he can have samples sent by mail from London, and by making his window "bright with a collection of specimen articles from large town houses" may lure the consumer, unaccustomed to magnificence in such a place, into overlooking the difference in price. The *Saturday Review*, aided doubtless by its habitual contempt for everything American, goes even further and deeper in its speculative researches, and foresees trouble for the Gladstone Ministry because "small tradesmen who discover that their most dangerous rivals have been practically brought next door, will not bless the Government which has made the fight for life still harder." A brief study of the working of the services in other countries would have shown all these able commentators that no marked changes will be made in the character or habits of the people; but that would not have been the English way of treating the subject. The "reform" has been established, and within the course of the next quarter of a century the British citizen may become weary of fighting for his luggage at railway stations, and may establish another "reform" and adopt a system of checks.

LAW AND ORDER IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, July 28, 1883.

It would be difficult fully to realize the differences between the relations of the people and the Government in the United States and in Ireland. With you the people are, and feel that they are, the Government; here the Government is a thing apart, whether for good or for evil. The relation varies, it is true, in different parts of the island. (The nearest approach to things as they are with you may be in Belfast, where, perhaps from very opposition to the rest of Ireland, and influenced to some extent by the general commercial prosperity, there is a greater consciousness of oneness with the Government and with the Empire at large even than in most towns across the Channel.) This was vividly brought home to us some time ago when we read an account of the burning of a penitentiary in one of your Southern cities, and how the Mayor distributed arms among the citizens and formed them in a cordon round the building to prevent the escape of prisoners, while the fire department set

about saving life and property. Here the last thing the Government desires, or could attempt at present, would be to call upon the citizens in a like emergency. It is true that when our Metropolitan Police struck last summer, a limited number of special constables were enrolled, but they came forward from one class, and were carefully selected and supervised. This dependence of the civil population upon the police and military has its advantage, tending almost entirely to eliminate from the minds of quietly disposed persons the thought of taking the law into their own hands or avenging their own injuries. But it is destructive of all idea of true citizenship, and has an eminently enfeebling effect. There is something almost ludicrous in the extent to which we think it necessary to abstain from individual responsibility or action and to call in the police. The evil-disposed are not without making their calculations in this respect. Even outside the circles which hate and are prepared to oppose or thwart the law, they can confidently rely upon the extent to which most men, suddenly brought face to face with violence or outrage, will be likely not to interfere in what does not personally and immediately concern them. The possibility that what might be a row or an outrage is a matter in which police in plain clothes are concerned, and the extreme danger of interfering with them, tend to encourage indifference. The impunity which these tendencies were likely to confer upon a body of men like the Invincibles was strikingly shown last year, when it appeared possible for a small number of ruffians to assassinate men in the Park in open daylight, or at their own doors in the heart of the city in the dusk, and to drive off with ease and safety. All they had to do was to see that no policeman was within sight—our ordinary detectives are almost as easily distinguished as their comrades in uniform—and the murderers might then calculate on having no trouble from the casual passers-by. The manner in which the Government attempted to solve, and in effect did solve the difficulty, was as original as it was unexpected. They imported some 300 royal marines from the reserves at the English naval ports, dressed them in plain clothes, located them in houses in different parts of the city, and set them to loiter and watch in the principal thoroughfares, ready at all times to assist the police, to guard prisoners, and to execute warrants. They were mostly lithe, able, pure blooded looking young fellows. One could generally judge of their appearance; but they were turning up upon all occasions when least expected, and no bully or "Invincible" could ever count upon some of these detectives being far distant. Their disguises were varied, and often so complete that members of the corps have been upon occasions taken into custody by the police or their fellows as suspicious characters. There was nothing by sentry or otherwise to indicate their barracks. This force, it is satisfactory to relate as an augury of more peaceful times, has just been withdrawn. Their position and duties were of the most delicate character, and the manner in which they fulfilled them is greatly to their credit. This measure is an indication of the almost boundless resources and powers of the United Kingdom, at once so highly civilized in its way, so organized, so closely knitted together by modern civilization, having at its disposal such a force of reliable human material. It does not appear to me that even with these powers and resources it would be possible permanently to hold in a condition of dissatisfied union such a clearly defined though small country as Ireland; but this power is thoroughly effective pending discussion—pending the efforts of statesmanship to maintain the Union upon present terms.

But if the Government, or, rather, the Lord Lieutenant, who is really an autocratic ruler under the Coercion Act, has been fortunate in the management of such an innovation as the marines in Dublin, such wisdom has not always been shown in the efforts to govern Ireland independently of the opinion of the mass of the Irish people. The imprisonment of the Harringtons may be taken as signal instances to the contrary. Under the present Crimes or Coercion Act, arbitrary powers are given to magistrates to try offences of utterance and press offences, and the punishments inflicted, instead of being, as heretofore, and as in England, of a comparatively light character, suitable for "first class misdemeanants," are now the same as for ordinary criminals. It must be also borne in mind that the magistrates before whom such cases are brought are not unpaid, honorary magistrates or justices; they are, like the County Court Judges, before whom the appeals are heard, and from whose decisions there is no further appeal, paid Government officers—dependent upon Government for their bread and advancement, like King Bomba's magistrates, the justice of whose decisions was for these very reasons so vigorously and eloquently called in question a generation ago by Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. Timothy and Mr. Edward Harrington are the owners and editors of the *Kerry Sentinel*, published in Tralee. I have never seen a copy of the paper, but presume it is a strenuous if not bitter opponent of the Government. Kerry has been one of the worst counties in the matter of outrages. The Executive maintain that this is largely due to the attitude and writings of men like the Harringtons and of papers like the *Kerry Sentinel*. The National party lay this to the conduct of the Kerry landlords and the manner in which the tenantry were rackrented. The Harringtons claim that they have set themselves against outrage, and that they have run considerable risks in their denunciation thereof, and, except under Mr. Forster's regime, when one if not both of them was among the 900 "suspects," they were neither of them brought within the meshes of the law until a few months ago. At a meeting in Mullingar last December Mr. Timothy Harrington delivered a speech, in which he said:

"I advise the tenant-farmers of this locality to come forward zealously and give a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. The agitation which has been carried on for the last four years will be turned against them if they do not come forward now and assist the laborers in their hour of need. I have learned since I came here that a great many of the farmers had got a reduction of from 10 to 25 per cent., and they should come forward now and assist the laborers in their hour of need."

This was construed into an attempt to terrorize the farmers of Westmeath; Mr. Harrington was sentenced by the magistrates to two months' imprisonment—sentence confirmed on appeal before the County Court Judge—and he served out his two months, sleeping on a plank bed, living on meagre prison fare, picking oakum, not allowed to communicate with the outside world, and having to carry his slop-bucket, with other prisoners, under the windows of the Governor's residence. Mr. Trevelyan defended his imprisonment substantially on the grounds that he was a "very formidable person." The farmers of Westmeath showed their appreciation of the action of the Government on their behalf by electing Mr. Harrington, during his imprisonment, to a vacancy which occurred in the Parliamentary representation of their county. Mr. Harrington is now more "formidable" than ever. He is in no degree subdued by what he underwent. He is the active Secretary of the National League, and one of the bitterest members of the Irish

Parliamentary party. He is a man about thirty years of age, of considerable force of character.

Some weeks ago the police, without warning, made a descent upon the office of the *Kerry Sentinel*, turned out the staff, and carried off all the type, presses, papers, and documents. A scandalous and bombastic printed notice had been posted in Tralee announcing the formation of a branch of the Invincibles in the town, stating where its meetings would be held, and soliciting public support. The notice was only a few inches square—"set up" in newspaper type and measure. The Government might well afford to pass the matter over, but they thought otherwise, and, believing that it was printed at the *Sentinel* office, took summary action accordingly. Mr. Harrington, M. P., and his brother denied all knowledge of the document, and in answer to the challenge of the former in the House of Commons, a magisterial inquiry took place, which resulted in two apprentices, on their own confession, being sent to prison for two months. Mr. Edward Harrington, the acting proprietor, was then proceeded against. There was nothing whatever to show that the document had been printed with his knowledge. The lads stated that they did it secretly, entirely on their own notion and of their own accord. He had commented upon its appearance in the *Sentinel*, and the magistrate strangely construed his comment to the effect that "it is in width the same as the columns of this paper" into *prima-facie* evidence that he must have known all about it; whereas every printer must be aware that any one connected with a printing office could at a glance estimate the measure and type of a printed notice casually seen. It was in truth Mrs. Harrington that saw the document and told her husband about it; but she, as his wife, could not be examined for the defence. To the general surprise Mr. Harrington was sentenced to six months' imprisonment. He appealed, with only the effect of adjourning the commencement of his incarceration. On the appeal the apprentices were brought up from the prison to give evidence. They reiterated that they were the only delinquents, and that Mr. Harrington knew nothing about the matter. To his trial and appeal, as those of his brother, Crown Counsel were specially sent down from Dublin to conduct the prosecution, and their influence was overwhelming against the prisoner.

Cases such as these of Mr. Harrington's cannot but aggravate public feeling in Ireland, and the aggravation will not be much lessened by Mr. Trevelyan's announcement in Parliament, on Thursday night, that some of the most oppressive prison regulations will in Mr. Harrington's case be somewhat modified. The public generally believe, and will continue to believe, that he is innocent, and that he is being sacrificed to the policy of the Executive here, never to retreat or acknowledge mistakes in its dealings with Ireland. By the "public" I mean the mass of the people—the people who turn the elections in all but a few northern counties. There is no sympathy for the Harringtons or for others of National proclivities in the minds of most Protestants or the upper "ten thousand," Catholic and Protestant. The country is at present hopelessly divided in this respect.

On the other hand, among the mass of the people there is no heartfelt sympathy in anything that befalls the landlord class through their position as landlords, or with any one who suffers for his adhesion to the Government. Mr. Field, the innocent juror, who was so basely assaulted by the Invincibles and who so narrowly escaped with his life, remains broken down in health, and is leaving the country. The couple of thousand pounds he will be able to realize of the levy made by Government on the city for his

benefit will be a miserable return for what he has suffered. Sale bills are up on his premises. It is difficult to realize, but impossible to refuse credence to, the evidence in support of the assertions current as to the manner in which he and those in his employment are being insulted and terrorized. The set against them is as senseless as it is wicked, and is a weapon in the hands of those who declare that coercion is the only policy for Ireland. The efforts to raise a fund for him met with but poor support. Some said they were afraid to give, others that he had had enough already out of the pockets of the citizens, and I remarked the name of but one Nationalist among the subscribers.

The plant of the *Kerry Sentinel* was returned, without apology or indemnity of any kind, after some weeks' detention. Since this letter was written, I have seen a copy of the *Kerry Sentinel* for this week. Its language in denunciation of the imprisonment of its proprietor is not more severe than the facts warrant. The following is "displayed" in a prominent position in the paper:

"SACRED TO THE MEMORY OF FREEDOM OF THE PRESS.—Edward Harrington, editor of the *Kerry Sentinel*, imprisoned (July 23, 1883) for six calendar months for a foolish notice printed by two young boys in his office without his knowledge. The Liberal Government of England supplies him in gaol with the criminals' uniform branded, 'County Kerry Gaol,' and the following fare: Breakfast—Five ounces of brown bread, and cocoa without milk or sugar. Dinner—Five ounces of brown bread and half a pint of soup. Supper—Five ounces of brown bread, and cocoa without milk or sugar. His bed is a deal plank, with no mattress, and scant covering. Occupation—Oakum picking. No books, no visits, no papers, no writing materials; but when he shall have completed his third month in prison the benign Liberal British Government will allow him to see one friend through the bars, and write one letter."

D. B.

REVOLUTION VERSUS REFORM.

LONDON, July 24, 1883.

TIME tries all. The anniversary of the taking of the Bastille comes round yearly as the feast-day of the French Republic, and naturally suggests one inquiry: How have the Revolution and its works stood the test of well-nigh a century? The question is well worth consideration, for it has a close bearing on some of the problems of modern politics.

The answer which would be given by the majority of educated Englishmen, as probably by the majority of educated Americans, is clear and simple. The Revolution, its heroes and their methods of government or of innovation, have been weighed and found wanting. The passionate invective of Burke, it will be admitted, overshot its mark. No one gifted with a tithe of Burke's genius would now write in his tone of the French aristocracy or of the French monarchy. He, assuredly, and the generation of Englishmen who virtually adopted his views, absurdly underrated the evils of the *ancien régime* and the difficulty of their cure. A condition of society which every Frenchman detested was, we may take it, detestable. But most Englishmen hold that if Burke fell into mistakes, his errors were far less fatal than the delusions of his opponents. The Revolutionists one and all, from the Constitutionalists down to the Jacobins, mistook the true path of progress. They one and all believed in revolution and disbelieved in reform; they all were, root and branch, innovators, and, like most theorists who have tried to renovate society from top to bottom, ended by overturning everything and founding nothing. True it is, that universal destruction inevitably destroyed some evils; but this advantage was gained at a portentous and needless price in the way of suffering and of de-

moralization. That thousands of innocent men should have died on the scaffold is bad enough; but, as far as France was concerned, it was even a worse evil that tens of thousands of Frenchmen should have witnessed with apathy, or have promoted with enthusiasm, deeds of sanguinary and reckless injustice. The cost of the Revolution would have been a terrible price to pay had it been the only price at which the freedom of France could have been secured; but the Reign of Terror destroyed instead of securing liberty. The Terrorists "were damned" and France was not freed.

Moreover, we now know that the advantages which France did gain from the Revolution might far more certainly have been obtained by means of progressive reform. The experiment has been tried. The Republic founded by men of English race and of English political habits has existed for more than a century, and stands as firm as any government in the civilized world. Revolutionary France has never yet succeeded in constructing a constitution which should last for a quarter of a century; and the average time during which any form of polity has stood unchanged on French soil is between six and seven years. Contrast the annals of England with those of her nearest Continental neighbor. Here everything has been changed, nothing has been destroyed. Progress has been slow, but it has been unintermitting. Fifty years of reform have removed every evil which the wildest innovator of (say) 1832 even fancied needed to be removed. Nor is this satisfaction with the pacific course of English progress, and disbelief in the efficacy of revolutionary violence, the mere result of insular prejudice. The best-known writers and thinkers of France have come round to the English way of looking at things. No better representative of sensible Frenchmen could be found than Taine, and Taine's successive volumes are a long and effective indictment against the principles, the practices, and the aims of revolutionary statesmanship, and also, as it seems at least to English readers, an elaborate justification or eulogy of all that is most peculiar in the constitutional habits and constitutional frame of mind which have for centuries marked the statesmanship of England. No wonder that the great body of Englishmen hold that the case of Revolution *v.* Reform, which has now occupied the tribunal of history for ninety-four years, has at last been fairly heard and decided, and that the only verdict which can be entered is a verdict entirely in favor of reform and in absolute condemnation of all revolutionary methods. That Englishmen should come to this conclusion is natural. Within certain limits the conclusion itself is sound; but to an impartial student of history it soon becomes apparent that there are cases—exceptional cases, it may be granted—in which revolution (by which I mean fundamental, rapid, complete change) has advantages over reform.

The policy of bit-by-bit reform has several inherent defects which occasionally make it as dangerous and ineffective a mode of attacking rooted evils as could be the rashest revolution. It is based on the assumption that at any given moment the existing state of society, though it needs amendment, yet in the main conciliates the good-will of the people, whereas this assumption, though often true, has been at some crises of the world's history the very reverse of the truth. In 1789 there was probably not one Frenchman in a hundred who wished the condition of his country to remain unchanged; the wild and unnecessary alteration of names and forms, such as the dissolution of the provinces into departments, which offended the politic sense and disgusted the historic imagination of Burke, were exactly the things which pleased

Frenchmen, who agreed in nothing but a dislike to the existing institutions of France, and which, monstrous as they appeared to Englishmen, have never been felt to be a grievance by even the conservatives or reactionists of France. The policy of gradual reform takes far too little account of time. There are hundreds of measures which can succeed only if they are carried through quickly and at once. Reformers of the English type are apt to be thirty, or it may be fifty, years behind their time. The policy of 1829 fails because it ought to have been the policy of 1800. The custom, further, of never carrying amendment a step beyond the point which is obviously required by the necessities of the time has this grave fault: that it almost invariably fails entirely to remove the grievances which it is meant to redress, and renders each concession to popular demands an incitement to further and often lasting agitation. Indeed, that strange and factitious kind of legalized revolution which is known as agitation, is the direct offspring of gradual reform. It is not without its advantages, but a condition of, so to speak, regulated discontent is not one in itself to be admired, and is certainly tolerable only among a people endowed with great calmness and not tormented by any keen sense of wrong.

Nor, lastly, is the practice, so dear to English statesmanship, of concealing fundamental changes in the substance of important institutions under scrupulous respect for names and forms, without its drawbacks. A device which minimizes the offence given to the sentiment of opponents also lessens the enthusiasm and satisfaction of the very classes whom reform is meant to satisfy, and it is often at least as important to make visible the extent and completeness of a change as to hide the fact that a fundamental change has been made. Yet this is just one of those considerations which are apt to be overlooked by the prudent common sense which is the predominating characteristic of English politics. That these theoretical objections to the unvarying adherence to the policy of gradual, and therefore slow and imperfect, improvement are not mere matters of speculation, is proved by every page of history. The tranquil course of our constitutional development, the singular good fortune which has on the whole attended the English nation, the various circumstances which have tended to assuage the bitterness of popular feeling even at periods of great excitement, have one and all given the policy of reform, as opposed to that of revolution, fairer chances in England than it has had in any other European country. Yet no impartial judge can assert that even in England the weaknesses, such as they are, of that policy have not produced results which are to a certain extent a set-off to its very marked success. Every Englishman has been trained from his youth up to admire the moderation displayed even in our revolutions. We have learned, even in the nursery, that the Revolution of 1689 was glorious because it was the least revolutionary of popular movements. We have perhaps not been quite accustomed enough to reflect on one or two other aspects presented by this triumph of orderly violence. The statesmen of 1689 were able to perform the part of reformers because their predecessors of 1640 had shown the daring of revolutionists. The moderation, moreover, of 1689 did not in reality repair all the ills which resulted from the slowness with which Englishmen allowed themselves to recognize the fact that the times required a fundamental change in the principles of government. The permanent division of the English people into Churchmen and Dissenters, the recognition by the state of the thoroughly base notion that a man's religious belief affects his political and his social

status, has, in more respects than one, done an injury which the lapse of years has not really repaired to the moral, the social, and the religious life of the English people.

Nothing, again, is, on the whole, a more striking feat of English statesmanship than the reform of 1832. I have dwelt in your columns more than once on the extraordinary success which has attended this great application of Whig principles; yet even here the absence of what may be termed revolutionary thoroughness has led to some ill consequences. As one looks back on the course of half a century, it is difficult not to regret that Earl Grey and his colleagues did not dare to base the Constitution on some franchise such as household suffrage, which would have precluded, say for a century, all demands for further increase in the number of voters. It is no slight evil to fix the attention of the nation for years upon the advisability of fundamental political changes. It is a very considerable evil to introduce a state of things which encourages or necessitates the development of systematic agitation. There is no doubt much to be said against universal suffrage; but to a philosophic observer the gain of resting the institutions of a country upon a foundation which does not admit of being further enlarged must appear to be often at least equivalent to all that can be justly urged against a political arrangement which in France, in Switzerland, and in the United States puts one part of the political institutions of the country beyond the possibility of change. It must often have struck travellers in America that the citizens of the Union gain more than they themselves are aware of, from the fact that no demagogue can address himself to the hopes of an unenfranchised class. However this may be, it is quite certain that the partial character of English reforms has, even in England, done some evil. It is hardly an exaggeration to assert that in Ireland the persistent application of the policy of gradual change or improvement to a country which has stood, and perhaps still stands, in need of revolution, has been one of the causes of that failure of English statesmanship which is at least as conspicuous as the failure in France of revolutionary remedies. There is no thinker of any school who would not now admit that the most promising attempts to remedy the grievances of Ireland, and thereby terminate the secular misunderstanding between the two islands which make up the United Kingdom, have missed all chance of success by being carried out too late. The policy of Burke was carried into effect more than thirty years after Burke was in his grave, and thirty years after the circumstances had passed away which made it at least probable that the emancipation of the Catholics might turn the Catholics of Ireland into supporters of the connection with England. It needed forty years from the time of Catholic emancipation to bring the Parliament of the United Kingdom round to concessions which, if made at once in 1829, would have allowed O'Connell to be a loyal member of an English Cabinet. There are not wanting observers to assert that the Land Act of 1881 would have satisfied the tenants of Ireland if its provisions had constituted the Land Act of 1870; and there are critics who suggest (whether with truth or not, I am not able to assert) that the shape which the legislation of 1881 has taken has at once irritated the landlords without satisfying the tenants.

One point is certainly clear: the Land Act of 1881 makes a far greater change than was anticipated by its authors. It tends, apparently, to turn the tenants into real owners of the land without giving them the sense of proprietorship, and to leave to the landlords the nominal ownership of estates, of which they become in reality

mere incumbancers. One can easily see that a policy which combines substantial change with nominal conservatism may commend itself to statesmen trained in the habits of English constitutionalism. It is less easy to explain why such a policy should be expected to produce popular satisfaction. If French revolutionary legislation had established a system under which the men who are now the proprietors of the land of France should, while in reality possessing the soil, have continued to be nominally tenants owing rent to the representatives of the *seigneurs* of the *ancien régime*, it is quite possible that the country districts of France might now be inhabited by farmers as prosperous materially as the existing proprietors of small estates; but no one can believe that such farmers would be the most conservative class in the country. They would assuredly, under the influence of the very sentiments which now make the small landowners of France the foes of change, be constantly excited by the desire to get rid of the rent due to landlords who, from their very position, would incur all the odium almost connoted by the term incumbancer. To have taken away the discontent which, in 1789, tormented the inhabitants of rural France is the one great success of the Revolution. The revolutionary statesmen did their work ill. Many of the evils affecting French society they did not touch. In everything which concerned religious reformation they showed themselves blunderers or impostors. They failed to see, with Mirabeau and Napoleon, that revolution did not necessarily involve anarchy and bloodshed; but the incompetence, the ignorance, or the wickedness of the Revolutionists did not entirely spoil the work of the Revolution. The roots of bitterness which spread hatred and discontent throughout the France of Louis XVI. and Louis XVI. were, in the main, inequality of rights and privileges among the different classes of the nation, and the existence of a system of land tenure utterly unsuited to the requirements of the time and to the feelings of the people. These roots of bitterness the Revolution destroyed summarily, at once, and for ever. The heroic and dangerous remedies of revolution freed France within a few years from discontents which could hardly have been appeased by a century of slow reforms. The palliatives of bit-by-bit improvement have, in Ireland, kept alive chronic discontent by the constant suppression of impending revolution. These are facts which require to be noticed by any thinker who wishes to pronounce a fair judgment on the case of revolution against reform.

A. V. DICEY.

PRUSSIAN RAILWAY POLICY.

BERLIN, July 23.

As in several of my former letters I have kept you posted about the designs and several steps of the Prussian Government in relation to the purchase of the private railways, I deem it my duty to report to you and dilate on the last measure which the Government has taken in this direction.

You will remember that by former purchases the Government had, with the sanction of the Landtag, bought 15,909.25 kilometres, to which must be added 2,236.37 under the Government's control, making in all 18,145.62 kilometres. A few weeks ago, just before the close of the Landtag, the Minister of Public Works sent in a new bill, according to which five very important and one insignificant roads were proposed to be acquired. The most important of these lines are the Berlin-Hamburg, the Altona-Kiel, the Rechte Oderufer (Right Oderbank), and the Oberschlesische (Upper Silesian). The whole length of these roads amounts to about 3,000

kilometres, and their final purchase, which is not in the least doubtful, will complete the present railway system of Prussia. It is an interesting fact, which speaks highly in favor of the moral soundness of Prussian officials, that up to the hour of the signing of the respective bills nothing leaked out of the proposed measures, and thus neither the Stock Exchange nor any speculator elsewhere could use a knowledge of them to advantage.

Since a final result has been reached, it will not be out of place to throw a retrospective glance at the different stages of the transition of railways into the Government's exclusive possession and sole control, the remaining small ones not deserving to be mentioned. Ever since the introduction of railways the idea that the state must occupy a promoting and regulating attitude toward them has been considered necessary in Prussia. The first public sentiment of the Government in relation to railways—viz., the railway law of November 3, 1838—was based on this idea, which was pronounced more distinctly when, after five years, private enterprise proved not to be up to the task of supplying the state with the most necessary railways. Until 1847 the Government, from purely political motives, could do no more than support the building of railways pecuniarily; but after that time, when it was in want of a connection between the centre and the east of the monarchy, it was compelled to build itself. The year 1848 almost brought the purely Governmental system; but the plan of Secretary Hansemann to buy all the then existing railways for the state had only passed through the first stages of development when its originator was compelled to resign his office. Thus, only after the removal of political difficulties, and after the adoption of the Constitution (1850), could the idea of the direct interference of the state with the building of railways assume a distinct shape.

The merit of having taken this step is due to Mr. Von der Heydt. In December, 1848, he became Minister of Commerce, and in September, 1849, he laid before the Second Chamber the draft of a law for the construction of several railways through the state, which was sanctioned by the Legislature. He was the first Prussian Minister who appreciated the real importance of railways, and with firm will worked toward a definite end. Even if he did not expect to gain it himself, it is owing to his activity that a state railway policy has been made possible. The example of Italy and France shows how extremely difficult and almost impossible it is to introduce state management into a country which has heretofore only known private management. Although the above-named countries are both in favor of state management, it is difficult to carry out the system, as even its adherents hesitate to accept superintendence in a country which has no experience at all on this subject. Mr. Von der Heydt smoothed the way for Prussia and removed many obstacles, by introducing state management in small districts at a period of comparatively small development of the network of railways, thereby in time educating skilled administrative officials.

In the following years, the necessity of extending this network as quickly as possible was felt to such a degree that the Minister of Commerce cared less who should build the railways than that they should be built somehow. The position of the Government toward the railways was greatly strengthened by the fact that, by the acquisition of the new provinces (Hanover, Hesse, and Nassau), extensive well-conducted and developed railways came into its possession. In the years of conflict, more extensive enterprise in the building of railways had been impossible; and between the two wars from 1866

to 1870 the pursuit of a definite railway policy in Prussia alone was greatly hindered by the amalgamation of the North German with the Prussian railway relations. Besides, the nation was occupied with more important subjects than railway questions, and an inducement to interfere with their development only came with the Franco-German war, which originated not only the suddenly appearing difficulties of transportation, but also the feverish speculation which immediately after the war manifested itself in railway building and stock gambling.

The unexpected growth of trade and commerce coincided with the total exhaustion of the railways. Their material had been worn out by the war, their officials had become inefficient, notwithstanding that they were required to manage an intercourse larger than ever before. That they were not up to the task will easily be understood, and the opinion more and more gained ground that the whole organization of the railways was at fault, and that it must be radically changed. The authority which should undertake the constitutional superintendence of the railways in the interest of the national defence was the Empire. The great progress in intercourse was followed by a corresponding increase of income. The dividends of private railways rose, and nothing was more natural than that the building of railways should be regarded as a particularly good investment, and the Government be stormed with petitions for the concession of new roads. It was then that Prussia resolved to build a new line for the direct connection of Berlin with the west of the monarchy (Berlin-Wetzlar-Metz), at her own cost, instead of leaving it to private capital. Deputy Lasker availed himself of the occasion when this plan was introduced to reveal how the railway concessions had several times been misused, and caused the appointment of a Parliamentary committee, which was charged to investigate (a) whether and how far the respective laws and administrative rules were qualified to insure the fulfilment of the ends aimed at, and whether they protected the public from deceptions and impositions; (b) what changes were necessary in legislation and in administrative management to remedy the existing drawbacks and evils. This committee came to the conclusion that politico-economical reasons and considerations required the unification of all railways under state control, and further deemed it necessary to charge the Government of the Empire with the management of the railways, to be ruled by its railway laws and controlled by its jurisdiction.

The excitement of public opinion caused the enactment of the law of 1873, which ordered the institution of an imperial authority for the supervision of all German railways—the Imperial Railway Office. The Reichstag had many difficulties to overcome, especially with the governments of the middle States, before this law, which its originators only intended to be temporary, could be carried. The principal duty of the new administration was to make rules for the regulation of all railway business in preparation for an imperial railway law. The new Railway Office made two attempts to solve this task, but both failed after consultation with the representatives of several Federal States had proved that an understanding with and between them was impossible. Prussia, in the meantime, had returned to a definite state railway policy. On occasion of the second conference the Minister of Commerce, Dr. Achenbach, on May 13, 1873, submitted his programme. While acknowledging the merit of the private railways in developing the network of railways, he nevertheless regretted that Prussia had not followed Mr. Von der Heydt's railway policy. He declared it indispensably necessary that the

Government should be in a position to compete with the private railways. By granting the necessary funds the Landtag enabled the Minister to realize his plans. In the years 1873 to 1875 endeavors were made to find and introduce a uniform and legal tariff for all German railways. At the same time the tariff for goods was raised 30 per cent.—a measure now generally admitted to have been wrong; but a rivalry between the Imperial administration and that of the larger single States could not then be avoided. The Imperial controlling administration, however, did not win sympathy by sanctioning the measure.

The result was that at the end of 1875 the condition of German railways was far from being gratifying. It was then that the idea was conceived of bringing all the chief railways into the possession of the Empire, of extending its railway policy to the single States, and of organizing a uniform railway system. Those who aspired to national unity saw a powerful promotion of their aims in this measure, and on that account put aside their scruples as far as politico-economical considerations were concerned. The plan found its chief opposition in the governments as well as in the population of the middle States. The princes, having had to yield the command of their troops to the Emperor—"I must make them civil kings," Bismarck said at the time, which frightened the rulers of the middle States excessively—apprehended that they should lose the essential prerogatives of their position, and were thus in this instance heart and soul with their subjects, who foolishly wished to save what they called their state rights. The railways were for the greater part state railways, and they wanted to keep them for themselves.

Prussia, in order to define her position on the question, submitted a bill to the Landtag in 1876, in which she set forth that the German railways were suffering from the overwhelming development of the private railways and from the false position which the Empire occupied toward them. The chief object must be to give the state more powerful influence over the development of the railways, and that right should belong to the Empire. To guard its rights control does not suffice; it must also own railways. Prussia is willing to help the Empire. She is willing to turn over all her railway possessions to it on condition that by and by it must buy the remaining private railways. If the Empire does not accept Prussia's offer, the latter will be compelled to concentrate all Prussian railways in her own hands. The bill was passed by both houses of the Landtag, and became law on June 4, 1876.

Prussia's attempt by this law to introduce the state railway system, not only for her own provinces but for the whole country, had little success. She declared herself bound to yield to the Empire every possible advantage which it could derive from the above-named system, but the other Federal States were of a different opinion, and lent no help at all, so that Prussia finally saw herself obliged to solve the task herself, and to regard the extension and consolidation of her railway possessions as the first step in the proper direction. The history of the last six years shows the execution of this programme. Three years were preparatory, and during the next three the greater part of the existing private railways came under state ownership. To detail the negotiations would lead too far; it will suffice to give a table of the private and state railways, and of those controlled by the Government, for the last three years:

	State Railways.	Private Railways Controlled by the State.	Private Railways.
1870-80.....	km. 6,198	km. 3,525	km. 10,033
1880-91.....	" 11,392	" 3,525	" 5,632
1892.....	" 15,305	" 2,142	" 3,850

The total will still be increased, by the above-named six private railways, by about 3,000 kilometres.

In conclusion, allow me to point out one drawback, which I have already mentioned in one of my former letters, and which has already proved more injurious than was at first anticipated. With the purchase of the last six lines the Government will have invested a capital of 1,327,983,000 marks (about \$330,000,000), which it paid in consols with 1,867,339,885 marks, (about \$460,000,000). The holders of these securities kept only a small part of them, and in their stead bought foreign or other shares and bonds which pay higher interest and offer a better chance at the exchange than a Government bond. You must, further, take into consideration that while the private roads had their financial business done by the private banks, the Prussian Government avails itself of the services of the Imperial Bank and the Seehandlung (a royal financial institution), and thus deprives the banks of a large and lucrative business. The same policy exerts an influence also on the exchange, the effects of which have not yet been fully developed.

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Correspondence.

MR. JARVES AND MR. STILLMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In the *Nation* of July 12 I find a letter from W. J. Stillman, Florence, June 20, which calls for notice. Most emphatically I disclaim the language he puts into my mouth regarding the electrotype bust of Michel Angelo, "without doubt contemporary and hitherto unknown," and that I regarded it "as a most important discovery," etc. In this case Mr. Stillman's "imagination is far greater than his" regard for fact. I did purchase for a few francs a bust of Michel Angelo, and was curious to know from what it was taken. At the request of Mr. Stillman, I lent it to him to put into the background of a picture he was then painting. When it was returned, I gave it away as an object of no importance to me. So much for the bust and his use of it to disparage my reputation in the same field which he tries to occupy himself.

He further says : "His two busts of terracotta are not supposed by any authority in Florence to be what Mr. Jarves believes them to be," without stating what my belief is. Any one caring to know what this is has only to refer to page 319, 'Italian Rambles,' and see for himself that, after describing them, I simply concluded that, "if not executed by Michel Angelo, they must have been done by some hand that knew him well," an opinion which is shared by authorities both in Florence and elsewhere. Some have printed their opinions to the effect that either they are by Buonarrotti himself or "sono degni di Michelangelo" (see pamphlet 'Sulla Scoperta di due Busti in Terra-cotta rappresentanti Michelangelo e Vittoria Colonna.' Domenico Rembadi, Firenze, 1874). These busts will be shown at the Boston Exhibition of Foreign Art to open Sept. 3, and those interested can there judge for themselves how far Mr. Stillman is justified by anything I have written of them in his assertions regarding them and me.

He is generous enough to say that my writings have done "not much harm, but certainly no good." I think we had both better let the public decide for itself as to their "harm" or the reverse, certain that it is seldom long misled or deceived in its judgments. Personally I have no reason to complain in regard to critics and the public. Any deficiency of severity in their opinions is certainly counterbalanced by the

protest of Mr. S. against my being considered an authority in art matters. But Mr. S. is always severe on those who succeed where he fails. As excavators and archaeologists, Doctor Schliemann and General di Cesnola have been eminently successful; but Mr. S. tells the world they are egregious "charlatans," etc. I am quite content to be abused in their company, whatever may be the value of my own more humble work. We cannot all be as profoundly wise and erudite as Mr. S., but we can be just to others and without envy and guile. I am always ready to correct my judgments by the superior light of others, but it must shine in more convincing form than personal abuse and unsustained assertions.

JAMES JACKSON JARVES.

HOTEL VENDOME, BOSTON, AUGUST 10, 1883.

MR. MCMASTER AND HIS CRITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : The chorus of praise which greeted McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States' on its appearance last March was altogether too concurrent to continue so. It was inevitable that the pendulum should have its backward swing before it found a point of rest. There may be, however, some of your readers who will mistake some of the criticisms upon the book for evidence that the book itself is fatally at fault, and I feel impelled to call their attention to the fact that the criticisms are not levelled at essentials. I do not know the author or his feelings in the matter; but I am sufficiently indebted to his work to feel bound to honor such a draft upon my time.

I have seen no criticisms on the book further than allegations that its author has falsified the history of Rhode Island; that he has copied Macaulay's style; that he has stolen from Macaulay and Rives; and that he has been guilty of offences against English grammar. The first is a special case. Rhode Island is certainly a State to be held in honor. It has not been allured by the smallness of its territory and population into any copying of its neighbors, but lives a life—a most honorable and useful life—of its own. In the many-sided development of American State life, its place is as high as that of its largest associate. But no student of American history can be ignorant that this very indifference to the opinions of others, which makes Rhode Island of the greatest use now, made it a positive source of danger during the period covered by McMaster's first volume. Washington's opinion (in his 'Writings,' x. 39) is so harsh that I do not care to cite it here; but all contemporary correspondence echoes it. McMaster's effort seems to be to bring out plainly the contemporary feeling, and the result is naturally more unpleasant to a Rhode Islander than we, who are on the outside, can properly appreciate. One good Rhode Island authority goes so far as to say that, "so far as this State is concerned, this 'History' is indeed valueless, for only an expert would be able to detect the false from the true."

So serious a criticism seems to be in need of specifications, and of these there are two: that McMaster mentions the proposed forcing act of 1786 as if it had been a finality; and that he turns a proposed disfranchisement of the Cincinnati into a positive enactment. I cannot see how the first charge can stand. He who consults the page of McMaster (p. 340) in question will find the fact that it was only a *proposed* law referred to directly and indirectly; its overwhelming defeat by the town meetings is ascribed to the "honest and fair-minded men" of the State; and I fail to see how any reader can be in doubt. As to the second specification, it is enough to say that

while McMaster gives in the text his own opinion that the Cincinnati were disfranchised, he gives in the note his authority in full, from which any reader may see that the disfranchisement was only proposed when the writing took place. Here, also, there is no danger of any mistake on the reader's part, and that is the essential point.

That McMaster has, in the opening of his first volume, and in the arrangement of parts of it, followed Macaulay's style, and occasionally, consciously or unconsciously, followed some of his methods of securing the reader's attention, is evident. It is doubtful whether any competent critic or reader failed to notice it, or to ascribe it to its true reason, the desire of a new writer to publish as plainly as possible, without direct statement, his intention to follow Macaulay's method. If McMaster had ever written a book before; if he had got his sea legs on, so to speak, he would have known that he was abundantly able to rely absolutely on himself. His work, a wonderful success for a first book, must nevertheless show something of the hesitancy with which a new writer tries his wings; and we can only be thankful that the hesitancy in this case took so grateful a form. At any rate, no reader can complain that his publishing of his adherence to Macaulay's method is obscure. I do not think, from his first volume, that McMaster was fool enough to suppose that his imitation of Macaulay's opening was likely to escape notice. I give it rather the obvious interpretation above stated.

It has seemed to me all along that the contest as to the Macaulay-McMaster style was unworthy. So far from the similarity being unnoticed, it was noticed from the beginning. The first three readers whom I met spoke of it; almost every review in the critical journals referred to it. Some, as your own, contented themselves with drawing a parallel between Macaulay and McMaster; others, as Mr. C. D. Warner, made the comparison "in a spirit of national pride that a writer has arisen capable of weaving our common life into as brilliant and vivacious a narrative as that which entranced the world when Macaulay took up his pen." Others, as Mr. W. F. Poole, directed special attention to the exact verbal similarities. But all the critics seem to have felt that, since there must be some fault in a first book, it was matter for thankfulness that the point of criticism was so minute.

Then the matter passed out of the hands of the critics into the hands of those who took a more strictly business view of it. Many of them were equally delighted and surprised at the discovery that there was an historian named Macaulay, and that McMaster had imitated his methods and, to some extent, his style; and each hastened to put in his journal's caveat for so remarkable an instance of acumen. For a time the contest raged with all the characteristic sound and fury of the proverbial tempest in a teapot. There were claims and counter-claims, and each "pointed with pride" to his own journal's record, and expected a large increase of subscriptions thereby. Before the battle died away, an attack upon the book appeared in the *New York Tribune*.

I do not propose to refute that attack in particulars. Its tone and temper are enough, to the literary men among its readers, to stamp it as a worthless criticism, and there is already a feeling of keen regret among the readers of the newspaper that it ever was inserted. I desire only to call attention to the fact that the transfer by McMaster of two sentences in Macaulay and one extract from Rives is the only basis of the attack; and that the alleged offences against English grammar, so far as they are not the slips of the printer, exist only in the reviewer's imagination.

So far as the three "appropriations" are concerned, any one familiar with the common difficulties of authorship will dismiss them as petty and vexatious specifications. In so vast a body of notes as is needed for a work of this extent, it is a sheer impossibility to guard against an occasional mistake of an extract for one's own note. Twenty instances would be evidence of an author's dishonesty; three are only evidence of a reviewer's malice.

I write to you mainly for the purpose of endeavoring to recall criticism to its proper field. It seems to me that McMaster's first volume is, for the period that it covers, by long odds the best history in existence; that it transfers the reader directly into the scenes which it is describing, and gives him as good an idea of them as he could have obtained by living among them; and that it is, in the best sense of the phrase, a complete success. If this is correct—and I have seen no evidence whatever arrayed to dispute it—I for one would not choose for myself the ungracious task of searching with eagerness for microscopic defects, or the petty triumph of showing that the statue is a line too long here or a thought too broad there. If any man would choose such a field of exertion, let him at least confine himself to it. Let him not assume his researches as a standpoint from which to pronounce upon the general merits of the work: *ne sutor ultra crepidam*. J.

NORWALK, CONN., August 13, 1883.

GENERAL CROOK AND THE APACHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The value of General Crook's campaign among the Apaches in Mexico seems to me to have been overestimated. A great personal triumph over natural obstacles has been so exaggerated in importance that it appears as a public benefit. Why the capture of the Apaches General Crook brought in was not of the value which has been given it, may be shown briefly.

In the first place, according to General Crook's statement, the Apaches, when he came up with them, were anxious to be on the San Carlos reservation—of course without loss or discomfort to themselves, if possible. The reason why they were anxious to come in, General Crook thinks (if he has been correctly reported), was because they realized that they were no longer able to make a successful stand against the whites. How the Indians arrived at this conclusion, or what past experience they had had on which to base it, we are not told. It is the fact that for several years past the Apaches on our southwestern border have received no punishment from United States soldiers that would deter them from crime or lead them to ask for peace. Whence, then, came the anxiety to be on the reservation? It may be accounted for by remembering that during the months of April, May, and June Southern Arizona and New Mexico and Northern Mexico are in a condition least favorable of all times during the year to the success of marauding parties. The grass is poor, the streams and springs low or out of sight altogether, and the game not desirable. Naturally the Apaches would at that time prefer reservation life. How to get back there safely after the recent commission of so many crimes, may easily have caused anxiety. Fortunately for them, General Crook stepped in, and the Apaches became "personally conducted." We actually witnessed without protest the transfer of a band of murderers from a place of discomfort and danger to a city of refuge where they are hospitably entertained and fed at the expense—in very small part, it is true—of the friends and relatives of those murdered! And

this, too, not only without adequate punishment to the Indians, but with excuses for the lack of it, founded on a policy which will not bear a moment's careful examination. In fact, almost the same arguments advanced by General Crook to justify his course would liberate half the murderers that are sentenced.

The sole promise of good that has so far come out of General Crook's campaign has come in spite of him and because of the firm stand taken by Secretary Teller. I refer to the fact that the military has charge of these "personally-conducted" Apaches. And it is even a question whether that will be of benefit. If the military in charge shows a spirit the opposite of that which has controlled its movements on the frontier for the past three years, the Apaches conducted by General Crook to San Carlos may be kept from war; otherwise not.

I may be alone in this, but I confess to a feeling of shame for our frontier soldiers that when the Apaches broke out last March, killing men and women who had the right to believe they were in a peaceful country, General Crook was not able to strike the quick, hard blows these Indians deserved, and still deserve.—Respectfully,

F. E. R.

INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL TYPES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just been showing your highly instructive article on the two new social types, the Bouncer and the Whooper-Up, to an English literary friend who takes great interest in the development of society; and he assures me that the Bouncer is not altogether a novelty hitherto unknown to science, but at best only a variant of a type recognized in Great Britain and her colonial dependencies as the Chucker-Out.

In the course of our conversation, it was also suggested that the Whooper-Up is perhaps only a coarse and vulgar variation of the familiar Professional Diner-Out, whose habits have been investigated and described by Mr. Thackeray and other scientific observers of social development. Should this prove to be the case, my English friend sees in the evolution of the American female Whooper-Up from the British male Diner-Out additional evidence of the higher civilization of the United States. J. B. M.

ATHENÆUM CLUB, LONDON, July 25, 1883.

Notes.

AFTER October 1 the price of the 'American Catalogue,' of which but seventy-eight complete sets remain on hand, will be raised to \$40 by the publishers, A. C. Armstrong & Son. The value of this work will not diminish with time. Mr. F. Leyppoldt now intends to supplement it with a single volume, bringing the list down to 1883 (the 'American catalogue' stops with July 1, 1876), and asks that subscriptions may be speedily sent him at 31 Park Row, the cost of the new volume depending upon the prospect of support thus afforded. It is to be hoped that the responses will be numerous as well as prompt, and that the editor's losses on the original publication will be made good by the new, and by the placing of the unsold remainder above mentioned.

Mr. Edward H. Stiles, Ottumwa, Iowa, purposes writing a brief history of the bench and bar of Iowa, and desires assistance in collecting materials for it.

'English Cathedrals: their Architecture, Symbolism, and History,' is the title of a compilation by Miss E. W. Boyd, of Albany, to be published, with illustrations, by Thomas Whitaker.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' "early autumn" list of

announcements embraces the long-expected 'Woman Question in Europe,' a series of essays by representative European women; 'Work for Women,' practical hints by George J. Manson; 'The American Girl's Home Book of Work and Play,' by Helen Campbell; 'Plutarch for Boys and Girls,' selected and edited by Prof. John S. White; the 'Essays of Elia,' printed from wholly new plates and illustrated with etchings by American artists; a 'History of the Northern Pacific Railway,' by E. V. Smalley; an important 'History of the Discovery of America to the Year 1525,' by Arthur James Weise, who has given eight years to his researches; 'The Hand-book Dictionary,' English, French, and German, in parallel columns, by George F. Chambers; 'Lectures on Painting,' by Edward Armitage; and 'The Wonders of Plant Life,' by Mrs. S. B. Herrick. The same firm (who, by the way, have become the regular publishers of the *Journal of the Military Service Institute of the United States*), will bring out new and enlarged editions of Roosevelt's 'History of the Naval War of 1812'; the late Dr. Chadbourne's 'Instinct in Animals and Men'; Thwing's 'American Colleges'; and Shepard's 'Pen Pictures of Modern Authors.'

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish early in September a new volume by the Rev. Phillips Brooks, with the title, 'Sermons Preached in English Churches.'

Roberts Brothers, Boston, announce the following works: 'The Expansion of England,' by Prof. J. R. Seeley; 'Autobiography and Letters of Orville Dewey, D.D.,' edited by his daughter; and 'Swanee River Stories,' by the late Sherwood Bonner, illustrated by Frank T. Merrill.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, will publish 'Twelve Months in an English Prison,' by Mrs. Susie Fletcher, a spiritualist medium, who writes from experience.

According to the *Academy*, the Clarendon Press has already in type more pages of the Philological Society's English Dictionary than are required for Part I, which will be published next month. It appears that the enterprise still needs all the pecuniary support which private liberality can bestow upon it. Any millionaire seeking a novel form of public beneficence should have his attention directed this way.

Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' edited by W. J. Rolfe, has just been published by J. R. Osgood & Co., in a style uniform with the "English Classics" and the Harpers' Shakspeare which Mr. Rolfe has likewise edited. Typographically, it is a very pretty volume, and Mr. Rolfe gives ample proof of the superiority of his text to the more or less corrupted ones which are reproduced without critical scrutiny. In this part of his task, he says, he encountered unexpected difficulties. His notes, in which the various readings are preserved, have been prepared with excellent judgment to meet the requirements of students and teachers, and are placed together at the end of the book. For pictorial illustrations there was at hand the series made for the publisher's luxurious holiday edition last year, and of these Mr. Rolfe has wisely rejected nearly all the figure pieces, preferring the scenic. Thanks to all this painstaking, the present edition merits a wide popularity.

Ginn, Heath & Co. begin a series of "Classics for Children" with 'Robinson Crusoe' (the first part), condensed by W. H. Lambert, Superintendent of Schools in Malden, Mass. We do not quite understand the editor when he says that "the long and involved sentences which characterize the writers of the age of Defoe have been cast into a simpler form, while the diction of the author has been carefully preserved." One would have thought these characteristic in-

volved sentences inseparable from the diction. But Mr. Lambert has gone further, and changed such marks of the period and the style as the following phrases exhibit: "As far as house education and a country free-school generally goes"; "being going by sea to London"; "no sooner . . . but"; "most inexpressible sick," etc. He does worse in making Defoe an authority for such a usage as "to seriously reflect," when the original reads, "seriously to reflect." He began, too, by simplifying the style, substituting "hurry" for "precipitate," etc.; but, as he went on, more wisely left the hard or obsolete word, and explained it in a footnote. On p. 35 the young reader is advised to follow on the map the ship's course before the shipwreck; but, curiously, no allusion is made to the common identification in children's minds of Juan Fernandez with the island opposite the mouth of the Orinoco. Except, however, for an occasional unnecessary loss of coloring, Mr. Lambert's task has, on the whole, been well done, and the little book is very attractively printed.

The same publishers have brought out a second edition of Dr. Dippold's faithful and otherwise meritorious translation of Emanuel Geibel's 'Tragedy of Brunhild,' first issued four years ago.

Three editions of a work so orderly and scientific as Dr. George E. Walton's 'Mineral Springs of the United States and Canada, with analyses and notes on the prominent spas of Europe, and a list of seaside resorts' (D. Appleton & Co.) establish its standard qualities. It is ten years since the first edition appeared, and the appendix describing new springs now enlarges the work by one-third. The chapter on seaside resorts, however, so far as it is a directory, is decidedly out of date, and calls for a fresh tour of inspection on the part of the author, whose home is in Cincinnati.

With the fourteenth *livraison* of Racinet's 'Costume Historique' (New York: J. W. Bouton) is given the text belonging to the thirteenth, and this disjointed arrangement will be maintained in the case of the next instalment of plates and letter-press. The present series ranges from Egypt through India to the land of the Eskimo, and through the divers countries of Europe and tribes of Africa. Furniture, jewelry, and domestic interiors receive the usual attention. Hogarth is among the sources laid under contribution for English costumes and family morals. Unavoidably, it would seem, in this work national and racial characteristics are preserved chiefly in the dress and accessories; seldom in the features of the men and women delineated.

With the marine mammals is concluded, in Parts 85-89, the third volume of the new edition of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (Leipzig: Bibliographischer Institut; New York: Westermann & Co.). The colored plates, on the other hand, while showing the whale and dogfish, happen to be occupied chiefly with the more familiar animals of the menagerie—the camel, deer, elephant, yak, etc., capably delineated in their natural surroundings. The woodcuts are, as usual, numerous and of good quality.

Recent issues of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* (Paris: E. Thorin) have shown in heliogravure the remarkable terracotta figurines of Myrina. The July number pictures some interesting examples of bronze mortuary vase handles from the same source, which are artistically novel and pleasing. An even greater interest attaches to an Attic bas relief, representing an *apobates* remounting his chariot while in motion, of which the original is very probably to be sought in a fragment of the Parthenon frieze, closely resembling it in treatment.

Some "References for the History of the Set-

tlement of Western New York," as complicated by the claims of Massachusetts upon that territory, are given in the July number of the *Library of Cornell University*.

The programme of "Old South Lectures for Young People," begun last week in Boston, is before us. The course consists of eight, by numerous well-known scholars and writers, some of whom, like Messrs. E. E. Hale and G. M. Towle, and Mrs. A. M. Diaz, have already learned how to approach the youthful mind, and others, like Messrs. John Fiske, G. Stanley Hall, and J. K. Hosmer, will have no difficulty in adapting themselves to it. Mr. Edwin D. Mead began with "Governor Bradford and Governor Winthrop," and other topics will be "Plymouth," "Concord," "The Town Meeting," "Franklin," "How to Study American History," "The Year 1777," and "History in the Boston Streets." Connected with this scheme is the printing of "Old South Leaflets," as, with reference to the opening lecture, Cotton Mather's *Life of Bradford*, from the 'Magnalia.'

We spoke lately of Prof. G. F. Wright's determination of the southern limits of the northern ice-sheet in Ohio. This line has been connected with that long since traced in New Jersey by similar exploration in Pennsylvania, executed by Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, partly with the assistance of Professor Wright. The result was made public at Montreal a year ago, and is now accessible in the Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, as well as in the current issue of *Science*. As shown on the accompanying map, the course of this terminal moraine from a point on the Delaware a few miles north of Easton is almost directly northwest till the New York border is reached and passed, shortly after which it reenters Pennsylvania with a southwesterly trend, and leaves the State to enter Ohio at the same latitude at which it entered from New Jersey. The resultant figure is a great right-angle. In Potter County, the divide for the Atlantic, the Gulf, and the Laurentian Basin, the moraine reaches its greatest height in this country, or 2,580 feet.

On September 26 will be held in this city a convention of American ornithologists, for the purpose of founding an American Ornithologists' Union upon a basis similar to that of the British Ornithologists' Union. Its objects are social and scientific intercourse among its members and the promotion of their favorite study, but also especially and immediately the revision of the current lists of North American birds, in order to secure a uniform classification and nomenclature which shall have the authority of the Union. Its meetings will be yearly at least. Those who attend the first one will be *ipso facto* Founders. The call is signed by Messrs. J. A. Allen, Elliott Coues, and William Brewster.

—"R. H. D." writes us from Munich:

"In the *Nation* of July 12 the reviewer of Mr. Henry Ruggles's 'Germany Seen Without Spectacles' says that Mr. Ruggles's statement that in Germany 'beer takes the place of coffee in the morning' is untrue. Speaking generally, the reviewer is right; but in boldly asserting that 'no German ever misses his morning cup of coffee' he is much mistaken. With regard to other cities I am unable to speak with certainty, but in Munich numbers of people drink beer in the morning, and not coffee. The German in whose family I live did so formerly himself. The habit is mostly confined to the poorer classes, such as carpenters, masons, etc., but I know of one family of considerable means who never drink coffee: males and females drink only beer in the morning."

—All Americans who have visited Greece—and the number is becoming a large one—regard with interest every faithful description of the life of the modern Greek people. No extended attempt at such description has been made, so

far as we remember, since Felton's 'Ancient and Modern Greece,' now a quarter of a century old, and there is undoubtedly room for a new venture in this field. Mr. Denton J. Snider, the author of 'A Walk in Hellas' (Boston: Osgood), is a teacher, we believe, of literature and history in the St. Louis High School. After acquiring the modern Greek language, he set out, in the winter of 1879, for a tour of several months in the more interesting parts of Greece, especially Attica, Boeotia, and Phocis. Unlike most travellers, he accomplished this tour, from beginning to end, alone and on foot. Thus he was brought into very close contact with the Greek people, to whose best traits—their hospitality and responsiveness—he does full justice and no more than justice. Mr. Snider is familiar with Greek literature and history, and has a genuine enthusiasm for everything Hellenic. He is also an excellent observer, has an eye for what will make a good picture, and must have been most conscientious in the use of his note-book. In consequence there are descriptions of persons and scenes which are almost photographic, and better than anything else of the kind that we remember reading. We wish that our space permitted us to quote in confirmation of this statement. The book, a bulky volume of 675 pages, is divided into twenty-four chapters called "Talks," prepared, we imagine, for the author's pupils, who must have heard them with interest and profit. The numerous digressions, in the form of philosophical monologues, are far more appropriate to a "Talk" or "Conversation" than they are to the book with its present title. Though usually interesting in themselves, original, and even poetic, they are swollen to disproportionate length, and bury out of sight many charming bits of description which one would gladly turn to at once. The value of the book would have been doubled had it been cut down to half the present size, and had it been furnished with an index and a map. We regret the more that this has not been done and that the proof-reading has not been more careful, because this would have entitled it to a place in every school library, and would have insured it the attention which the author's ability, originality, and enthusiasm might justly claim.

—A posthumous benefactor of the University of Pennsylvania accompanied his endowment with the condition that the phenomena of spiritualism should be investigated scientifically, and a few weeks since the composition of the committee was announced, together with its programme—how this member expected to show up the humbug on this side, and that member on the other. One can imagine the testator grieving in spirit, and wishing he had left his money to the Society for Psychical Research. This significant association, at the head of which stands Prof. Henry Sidgwick, author of the 'Methods of Ethics,' is but a year and a half old, but at the close of last year it had attained a membership of 150, and, as its aims and proceedings become known, will doubtless find a very much larger support through associate members wherever the English language is spoken. Among its officers are Prof. W. F. Barrett, of the Royal College of Science, Dublin; Prof. Balfour Stewart, Owen's College, Manchester; John R. Holland, M.P., and Messrs. Roden Noel, Hensleigh Wedgwood, Edmund Gurney, Frederic W. H. Myers, etc.; while in the list of members are found the names of Oscar Brownning, Wm. Crookes, Titus Salt, Rev. F. Chenevix Trench, Percy Wyndham, Rev. H. R. Haweis, Stanley Lane-Poole, G. J. Romanes, Alfred R. Wallace, and many other notabilities of all professions, together with a goodly number of ladies, including Miss Rhoda Broughton. The

Society's committees indicate by their very titles the work it is engaged in. They are six in number, of which four are as follows: on Thought-transference; on Mesmerism; on Physical Phenomena; on Haunted Houses. Another is on certain alleged magnetic properties and luminous appearances of special organizations, and is called the Reichenbach Committee. The Literary Committee, finally, deals with dreams, premonition, second-sight, apparitions, etc., etc.

—It is this last committee's report (the work of Messrs. Gurney and Myers) which fills the greatest space in Part 2 of the Society's Proceedings (Trübner & Co.), and possesses most interest. There is no circle, however cultivated or free from vulgar superstition, that could not add some experience of a kindred nature to the thirty-four tales here given with circumstance, and generally with the names of the relators. They are such as the late Robert Dale Owen massed together in his 'Footfalls on the Boundary of Another World,' and are, in a majority of cases, connected with the lives of our contemporaries, many being very recent. There is no endeavor to refer them to spiritualism, and they are treated throughout as if ordinary operations (however mysterious) of mind upon mind. Quite the most remarkable, though it may be taken as a type, is that of the apprentice of an exacting employer, deceived by the clock into thinking he had overstayed his lunch hour, and being so shocked by the discovery that (if we may credit the narrative) his employers saw his image return and hang up its bat, and then cover itself again and leave the store while the apprentice was all the time sitting at the lunch-table round the corner, and gradually woke to the consciousness that he had misread the time fifteen minutes. The committee have gathered an enormous amount of this material, and purpose bringing out a book. "The point in the evidence," they say, "that impresses us is not its exciting or terrific quality, but its overwhelming quantity—overwhelming, we mean, to any possibility of further doubting the reality of this class of phenomena." And again: "Taking all these people [the several classes of witnesses] into consideration, they often seem to us like a multitude of persons standing side by side in the dark, who would be astonished, if the sun rose, to see their own overwhelming numbers." The discussions in this volume will commend themselves as sane, cautious, and moderate. There are some excellent stories of haunted houses, and some curious experiments in thought-reading or clairvoyance.

—The Society for Photographing Relics of Old London has, in its ninth year's issue, once more gone south of the Thames, and gives three views of Lambeth Palace—the Great Gateway (Morton's Tower), the Great Hall (Juxon's Hall, now the Library, freely open to the public), and the Lollards' Tower (more properly, the Water Tower). This fine and imposing example of early Tudor brick building, which another five hundred years may pass over without substantially changing it, furnishes the noblest as well as the least perishable of the antiquities pictured in the present series. Three other views, however, will also gratify an eye which delights in architectural refinements. The old house in Great Ormond Street, already hemmed in and overtopped by public buildings, and since (1882) demolished, is almost an ideal home of solid wealth and respectability, yet a Queen Anne structure which would be unrecognized and unappreciated by the votaries of the so-called style in this time and country. The graceful Corinthian portico was acquired by the South Kensington Museum. Less princely and much inferior in design, but

still interesting and effective, is the double house on Queen Square, Bloomsbury, which has been erroneously attributed to Sir Christopher Wren. Here the two doorways, combined in one motive, are the chief feature. Of exceptional beauty on account of its proportions is the doorway adjoining "the oldest shop in London" (1690), on Macclesfield Street, Soho. The shop itself is a projection consisting of graceful Ionic members, skilfully adapted to modern uses. In this, as in the two preceding photographs, one sees in area and stairway railings delicate examples of a species of wrought-iron work which has become a lost art with us. Relics of old inns are shown in views Nos. 76, 77, 78, the last, near Lambeth Palace, having most character. No 80, a modern shop at 37, Cheapside, commemorates the site of the "Nag's Head" tavern, "famous in the controversies on the validity of Anglican orders, as being the supposed scene of the consecration of Archbishop Parker." Another Cheapside building shown in No. 81, "The Old Mansion House," has doubtful authority for being considered the work of Wren (1668-9), and will hardly be claimed for him by his admirers. Very picturesque, finally, and curious, and of a rapidly vanishing class, is "The Golden Axe," St. Mary Axe, a three-story, overhanging, stuccoed, gabled house, on a street corner. The usual sheet of explanatory letter-press accompanies this issue, which fully maintains the interest of its predecessors, while enhancing their value by steady accumulation. The Society accepts subscriptions for single sets of these artistic autotypes. The honorary secretary is Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey.

—The best biography of Manzoni which has appeared since his death is undoubtedly the recent work of Cantù, bearing the modest title of 'Reminiscences' (Milan: Fratelli Treves). The long and close intimacy of the writer with the subject of his memoir enables him to give a mass of interesting personal details, which, for the first time, make the readers of the 'Promessi Sposi' feel acquainted with its admired author. Manzoni's family, his education, first visit to Paris, marriage and conversion, literary activity, domestic and social life, and political views are discussed and illustrated with an unexpected wealth of material. Inedited correspondence and, above all, Cantù's personal reminiscences add peculiar value to the book. A few debatable points in Manzoni's history are not cleared up. He never spoke himself of his conversion to Catholicism, and his alleged visit to the church of St. Roch in Paris is pronounced a legend. The genesis is given of another legend—to wit, that his confessor, Tosi, shut him up in his room until he completed his work, 'La Morale Cattolica.' It seems that Manzoni was overrun with curious visitors, and attributed to this his inability to complete certain work. Tosi told the servants to say that Manzoni was out, or was not receiving company; hence the story of his confinement. Manzoni was of medium height, somewhat stooping in his old age; his head was not large; his forehead retreated; his eyes were small, bright, and sparkling with intelligence; his mouth large, with thin lips. Although he had a slight impediment in his speech, he was a brilliant talker and full of sly humor. His great memory furnished him with many apt quotations, which he sometimes used with comical effect, as when, the argand lamp having gone out, he cited the line from Tasso ('Ger. lib.,' xix. 26):

"Moriva Argante, e tal moria qual visse."

It is known that for a long time Manzoni resisted his friends' entreaties to be painted or photographed. Cantù gives a portrait from an aquarelle of 1829 and from a daguerreotype taken in

1854, and also portraits of his mother and first wife. Among the curious documents printed by Cantù is a denunciation of the 'Promessi Sposi' presented to the Austrian Government. It is well known that some critics, Settembrini at their head, saw in the 'Promessi Sposi' an unpatriotic work, while the author of the denunciation regarded it as dangerous to the existing government.

—The results of the observations of the last two total eclipses of the sun are of high importance in solar physics. Dr. Arthur Schuster has lately reported to the Royal Astronomical Society a detailed account of the observations obtained in Egypt during the eclipse of May 17, 1882. Three photographic instruments were at work during the progress of the eclipse: one took photographs of the corona, a second was a photographic camera with a prism placed in front, and the third was a complete spectroscope. The direct photographs of the corona indicate its variations from eclipse to eclipse; for if the photographs taken during eclipses in the past twenty years be compared with each other, it may be seen that the corona varies in a regular way with the state of the sun's surface, although there are irregular minor changes. At the sun-spot minimum the corona is much more regular than at the maximum. At the minimum there is a large equatorial extension, and about the solar poles a series of curved rays. At the maximum there is practically no regularity at all: the long streamers go outward sometimes in one direction and sometimes in another; and during this eclipse—which was near the sun-spot maximum—there was absolutely no symmetry in the appearance of the corona. The transparency of its streamers is most striking. One streamer can sometimes be traced through another, showing that the matter, whatever it is, must be very thin. The photographs taken with the second instrument show one prominence with a great number of lines in the ultra-violet. The fact was brought out in this eclipse that the brightest lines in the prominences are due, not to hydrogen, but to calcium. In considering the results obtained with the complete spectroscope, it is a striking fact that some of the lines cross the moon's disc, and especially the two calcium lines H and K—thus proving that these lines were so strong in the prominences that the light was scattered in the earth's atmosphere, and reflected right in front of the moon. The coronal photographs bear out the distinction between the inner and the outer corona, the former being much stronger in light. The continuous spectrum of the corona is stronger on the side where the prominences are weaker. No known substances have been traced in the solar corona. The greater number of the prominence-lines in the ultra-violet are also unknown, but they seem to be present in Doctor Huggins's photograph of the spectrum of α Aquile.

—These results were all obtained by the English party, no American expedition having been sent out to observe this eclipse. An English and an American party were sent out to observe the total eclipse of May 6, 1883, from the Caroline Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean. They were favored with a clear sky during more than five minutes of the total phase, and met with entire success—observing the solar corona extending over a distance of two diameters from the sun; searching for intra-Mercurial planets, but finding none; obtaining good photographs of the corona and the coronal spectrum, the former probably surpassing in beauty and detail everything which has heretofore been secured; and photographing, for the first time in the history of eclipse-observation, the momentary flash of bright lines seen just before the beginning and

immediately after the end of totality. The English observers find that the lines obtained in the spectrum of the corona by their various methods are chiefly those of hydrogen. The American observers arrived in San Francisco, June 11, on their return journey, and reported the successful execution of their plans in every detail for the observation of the eclipse. Professor Holden swept for intra-Mercurial planets, but discovered none. Spectroscopic observations were made by Dr Hastings, Mr. Rockwell, and Mr. Upton with interesting results. Dr. Hastings had devised a spectroscope by which the spectra of two opposite sides of the sun were brought into juxtaposition, and could be examined simultaneously. He interprets the results secured with this instrument as conclusive proof that the outer corona is mainly due to diffraction. The bright hydrogen and magnesium lines were seen by several observers. The duration of totality was five minutes and twenty-five seconds. The corona was bright, and characterized by five well-defined streamers, careful sketches of which were made by M. Trouvelot and Doctor Dixon. The meteorological observations showed a slight but well-defined rise in barometric pressure, a rise in humidity, and a fall in temperature. The temperature reached the values given at night, while the radiation-thermometers indicated that the receipt of heat by the earth was almost wholly checked. The next total eclipse of the sun occurs on September 8, 1885, and the duration of totality is about a minute and a half, visible only in New Zealand.

THE REAL LORD BYRON.

The Real Lord Byron. New Views of the Poet's Life. By John Corly Jeaffreson. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883. Pp. viii.-556.

WE have had occasion more than once of late to take note of recent Byronica as evidences of a reviving interest in the study of the poet. Mr. Jeaffreson's book will, we are confident, be welcome to every one who wishes to grapple seriously with one of the most puzzling problems in literary psychology. We all know *who* Byron was; but *what* was he? A monster, or a mere scapegrace, or a scapegoat? Are we to side with Mrs. Stowe, or with Moore, or with Macaulay? The student of our nineteenth-century literature cannot evade the question; it is ubiquitous. Necessarily welcome, therefore, will be any sincere, well-directed effort toward answering it or supplying the materials for an answer. The present work, as its title suggests, is such an effort. It does not profess to be a new biography of the poet, much less a critique of his writings. It is evidently not intended to supersede either Moore or Elze; indeed, it gives scarcely enough of the known and uncontroverted facts of the poet's life for a reader unfamiliar with other works. But what it undertakes it does thoroughly: it reveals to us the man Byron as he has never before been drawn with pen and ink, his character—both in its formation and in its final development—his good qualities, his foibles, and his vices. The portrait is not an agreeable one to contemplate, but that is not the author's fault. He has treated his subject with what seems to us the strictest justice. Avoiding equally the fulsome adulation of Moore, the absurd defamation of Mrs. Stowe, and the almost as absurd declamation of Macaulay, he gives us facts—hard, unpalatable facts—and in general leaves the reader to draw his own conclusions.

Such a work must, of course, be largely negative in its procedure. One cannot get at the facts of a literary controversy without first overturning false views and theories. How

false the usual views have been, even on the most ordinary points, may be learned from the following passage in the introductory chapter:

"Who has not been invited to ponder on the habitual melancholy of the man who, in his brighter time, brimmed over with frolic, and even in the sadness of his closing years made the world ring with laughter and delighted in practical jokes? Who has not heard of his gloomy brow, black locks, dark eyes, and club-foot? And yet his face was not more remarkable for the beauty of its features than for the brightness of its smiles: his hair, light chestnut in childhood, never darkened to the deepest brown of auburn; his eyes were gray-blue; and he hadn't a club-foot."

In the limited space at our disposal we can do little more than indicate the most prominent steps in Mr. Jeaffreson's investigation. The first bubble that he pricks is that of the poet's boasted aristocracy. He shows that the Byron family, however promising they may have been in the days of William the Conqueror, speedily degenerated into tiresome mediocrity, and that the peerage title conferred on them in the seventeenth century was a misfortune rather than a gain; not to speak of the bar sinister in the line, which must have been known to the poet. The poet was the only man of genius in the line. Furthermore, the trait of recklessness which was so prominent in the poet, and which earned for his father the sobriquet of "Mad Jack," was really due to the Berkeley blood in their veins, and not to the Byrons.

Mr. Jeaffreson decides in favor of London as the poet's birthplace. His lameness was not the result of a club-foot, but of a contraction of the tendo Achilles—at first in the right foot, but subsequently extending to both. The point is not so unimportant as might be supposed. Had the evil been merely a club-foot, the poet, both as boy and man, might have been at least as good a pedestrian as Sir Walter Scott, whose club-foot, we all know, never prevented him from climbing, walking, or other sports of the kind. Byron's lameness was peculiarly unfortunate in depriving him of the only permanently efficacious means of overcoming a tendency to excessive corpulence inherited from his mother. Mr. Jeaffreson's remarks on this subject are the first, to our knowledge, to throw light on one of the most obscure points in Byron's life. Every now and then the reader of Moore stumbles upon some allusion to Byron's fatness, without perceiving what it can mean. The obvious explanation is, that Moore himself, who knew the poet only in his prime, when he had reduced himself by the most merciless diet, was very imperfectly acquainted with this inherited weakness. The reader of Mr. Jeaffreson will now understand fully what a ceaseless struggle Byron waged, what means he used, and how he weakened and finally ruined his constitution, only to succumb to the fever of Missolonghi. Fasting and Epsom salts to reduce fat, tobacco chewing and laudanum to allay the cravings of hunger, boxing, swimming, and riding—in short, a great deal of what might else appear mere eccentricity in the poet's mode of living, will now appear as so many frantic efforts to overcome a lifelong evil.

Mr. Jeaffreson's remarks upon Byron's sensibility, memory, and imagination, as the impelling forces in his early love affairs, and the verses to which they gave occasion, are among the best passages in the book. They suggest, without expressly reiterating, the old but now half-forgotten caution, not to judge a poet according to the ordinary rules of life—above all, not to take his outpourings too literally. How unintelligible to prosaic mortals is this intense self-abandonment to the latest sorrow or loss, in which occult slumbering remembrances of former griefs only help to make the present flame burn more

fiercely! Mr. Jeaffreson finds in Byron's cousin, Margaret Parker, the original of Thyra, and doubtless he is in the main correct; yet a good deal may be said in favor of other views, into which we cannot enter. At all events, he is cruel enough to demolish "The Dream" as a bit of genuine autobiography. What many readers have suspected, he proves, so far as there can be any proof—namely, that Byron deliberately misrepresented his own feelings. Wishing to insulate the wife from whom he had parted in anger, it pleased him to make the world believe that he never loved her, that even on their wedding-day his heart was filled with regret for another. Unfortunately for the poet, the evidences that he did love his wife sincerely during their engagement and for months after marriage, that his heart had lost all its quondam affection for Mary Chaworth, are too numerous and indisputable. But to Mr. Jeaffreson belongs the credit of being the first to sum them up. The same may be said of his analysis of Byron's relations with Miss Millbank, both before and after marriage. We now perceive why the poet fell in love with her, how strong and genuine his attachment to her was, how the affair was a bit of clever match-making on the part of Lady Melbourne, and how entirely free Byron was from any taint of fortune hunting. Setting aside this personal liking, we need hesitate no longer to say that the match was in all respects the reverse of brilliant for the poet. It brought upon him grave responsibilities, and gave him little or no pecuniary help to meet them. It was, in truth, a love-match that was doomed to end disastrously.

What Mr. Jeaffreson says about Byron's life at Cambridge is good enough as far as it goes, but it surprises us to see no mention made of Hodgson among Byron's college friends. Can it be that our author is unaware of their great, and on the poet's side most self-sacrificing, friendship? The publication of Hodgson's "Memoirs," three years ago, brought into new light many good points in the poet's early life, and also gave the coup de grâce to the Stowe scandal. On the other hand, the discussion of the influence of the society of Southwell upon the formation of Byron's language and manners is positively refreshing, when contrasted with Moore's snobishness and Elze's pedantry. It will do us all good, we trust, to learn that the lordly poet by eminence was indebted to refined and disinterested ladies of the middle class for the best part of his breeding and diction. New to us is Mr. Jeaffreson's surmise as to the authorship of the famous *Edinburgh Review* article upon "Hours of Idleness." He suspects that it was written by some Cambridge Don in revenge for the satire upon the University in the "Hours of Idleness." This is quite plausible, and disposes, of course, of both Jeffrey and Brougham, much to our relief.

Those who wish to revive the now somewhat faded glories of "Childe Harold" and to see the hero of the hour in the first flush of success, will read and reread chapter xii. Here, again, Mr. Jeaffreson exhibits to the full his powers of observation and discrimination. He shows us that the success of "Childe Harold" was not so wholly spontaneous as one is apt to fancy—at least, that it had been prepared in a measure by private circulation of the book (before publication) among friends and well-disposed critics. On the other hand, Byron's undisputed supremacy was really quite short-lived. Envy, detraction, religious bigotry were soon at work, undermining the poet's throne long before his separation from his wife. To read Macaulay, one would suppose that the storm which drove Byron from England was a sudden act of moral frenzy on the part of a righteous or self-right-

eous public, whereas Mr. Jeaffreson makes it clear that the storm was long in brewing, that it began in Tory hatred of the poet's liberalism and holy horror of his infidelity. The quarrel between Lord and Lady Byron was little more than a convenient pretext for giving it vent. We cannot attempt to restate our author's strictures upon Lady Caroline Lamb, much less to enter into his explanation of the causes leading to Lady Byron's separation from her husband. With regard to Lady Caroline, Mr. Jeaffreson is unquestionably right; of the two parties, she was the more sinning. As to Lady Byron, we can only say that he has gone over the whole ground carefully and weighed impartially all the known facts, possibly excepting the letters and statements in the Hodgson 'Memoirs' already referred to. His judgments are even-handed and his words measured. We shall, perhaps, never know with certainty the real causes that led to the separation; but Mr. Jeaffreson makes it at least highly probable that they were twofold—first, Byron's brutality to his wife during the latter months of her confinement; second, his intrigue with Claire (the mother of Allegra) just before or soon after his wife left him to visit her father, in January. But this intrigue did not come to Lady Byron's knowledge until after she had left him. Her sole ground for leaving him was his brutality. At first she attributed this to incipient insanity; but when satisfied that Byron, however violent, was still sane, she and her father took steps for a separation. It was after these first steps had been taken that fresh information (probably the intrigue above mentioned) came to her ears and made the breach hopeless. Such is the most meagre outline of our author's summing up of a *cause célèbre*. Without fully satisfying the inquisitive mind, it will certainly relieve the heart of an honest reader, and suffer him to restore the poet to the class of ordinary offenders. The charges brought by Mrs. Stowe are so thoroughly disproven that Mr. Jeaffreson does not even mention them except by implication. It only remains to add that Byron's conduct toward his wife during her confinement was the result of many causes—notably the duns of his creditors, an attack of jaundice, and nervous derangement produced by the excessive use of laudanum, tobacco, and alcoholic stimulants.

Mr. Jeaffreson's happy guess that the meeting of Byron, Shelley and his wife, and Claire at Geneva was not an affair of chance, but a preconcerted arrangement, is another one of the novelties of his book, and reveals the utter hollowness of the famous "Fare Thee Well" lines. But Mr. Froude, in the August *Nineteenth Century*, relieves the Shelleys of their apparent complicity. As to the quarrel between Byron and Southey, we may remind Mr. Jeaffreson that the subject was discussed exhaustively, two years ago, in the *Anglia*, and that it is more complicated than he seems to perceive. Byron's orgies at Venice are the darkest chapter in his life; every reader will be glad to pass them over in silence. Mr. Jeaffreson does not add much to what we have already read in Moore, but he supplies the righteous condemnation which Moore was too faint-hearted to speak out. It is now clear to us that these frightful excesses were the remote cause of the poet's death—they sapped his vitality. When afterward he resumed his abstemiousness, in the effort to shake off obesity, his constitution had no longer strength to resist the attacks of fever. One other feature of the change that Byron underwent in Italy has been brought by our author into due prominence. More than once the reader of "Don Juan" is surprised by a note of praise in behalf of avarice as the most satisfying and genteel of vices. This sounds odd, coming

from the author of "Childe Harold," who scorned to receive copy-money, and had an open purse for every borrower, worthy and unworthy. But Mr. Jeaffreson shows us how Byron came step by step to learn the full value of money, to drive a hard bargain with his publisher, scrutinize sharply his weekly bills, swell his income to handsome proportions, insist rigorously upon his full share of his wife's estate (which came to her from Lord Wentworth at the death of her mother), and accumulate a capital of ten thousand pounds. This desire for money was not mere avarice in the poet: money was to be the means of procuring political eminence of some sort. There can be little doubt, after the publication of Trelawny's 'Memoirs' and the investigations of Elze, of Professor Jebb, and Mr. Jeaffreson, that Byron, had he lived, would have placed himself among the leaders of the Greek movement—perhaps have made himself king. To quote Trelawny's words: "Had he lived to reach the Congress of Salona as commissioner of the loan, the dispenser of a million silver crowns would have been offered a golden one." It may be stated, in explanation, that Byron's own princely contributions to the cause qualified him to be commissioner. Some of the details in our author's account of Byron in Greece are new; but in the main his estimate of Byron's political abilities and conduct agrees with Professor Jebb's and that in the English translation of Elze, rather than with Elze. Most Englishmen certainly are now agreed that Byron acted with foresight and energy, and was anything but a political Don Quixote. His failure was due, not to want of capacity, but to a shattered constitution and exposure to malarial fever.

The object of Mr. Jeaffreson's most searching criticism is the Countess Guiccioli. He goes to the opposite extreme from Moore. The latter, wishing to inflict as much annoyance as possible upon Lady Byron, represented the Italian Countess as a model of all that the English Lady should have been but was not: she it was who rescued him from the slums of Venice, interested him in Italian literature and politics, and was to him—in everything but name—a loving and loyal wife; and Byron repaid her with a devotion that ended with his life. What Moore began, the Countess herself completed in her well-known 'Recollections.' Byron was "white-washed" as thoroughly as he well could be. But Mr. Jeaffreson leaves scarcely a vestige of this whitewash. He makes it clear that Byron's *liaison* with the Guiccioli, although outwardly more decorous, was of the same sensual order with his other *liaisons*—e. g., with Claire, and Marianna Segati; that he wearied of her, neglected her repeatedly, and practically abandoned her when he embarked for Greece. On the other hand, he argues that the Countess not only acted very foolishly, but even acted against Byron's wishes in bringing about a separation from her husband, and that she was really Byron's evil genius in hindering him from returning to England at a juncture when reconciliation with his wife became once more possible. Our author's facts and arguments are very forcible, and will doubtless carry conviction with them. Yet we cannot refrain from suspecting that they are urged a trifle too zealously. They are not in the sober, judicial tone of the rest of the book, but have a ring of advocacy, as if the author had accepted a retaining fee against the Countess and were bent on earning it. We do not say that Mr. Jeaffreson is wrong; but we cannot help feeling that the Countess was not utterly weak and silly, and that she did the poet at least some good at a time when he most needed it. To do real justice to such a character, the critic should have a lighter touch and more

knowledge of Romance temperament than our author seems to possess. We say this without wishing to offend one to whom we are under great obligations. This part of the book should have been written by George Sand.

A good deal of space, more perhaps than was needed, has been devoted to the account of the destruction of the memoirs given by Byron to Moore. It is enough for the reader to know that they were destroyed, although doubtless the Byron family will be gratified by this public declaration that the destruction was the work of Hobhouse and Mrs. Leigh. This, of course, clears Lady Byron from every imputation of cowardice or selfishness. The quarrel between Lady Byron and Mrs. Leigh, which sprang up after the poet's death, has hitherto been a puzzle; our author is the first to make it entirely clear in its origin and bearings. But his explanation of the way in which Lady Byron came to suspect her husband of the terrible crime, the secret of which she revealed to Mrs. Stowe, will not satisfy most readers. We doubt if she evolved the suspicion from her own mind through morbid brooding over works like "Manfred" and "Cain." Was not the charge of incest whispered about during the earlier stages of the anti-Byron crusade, and even darkly hinted at in some of the scurrilous London newspapers? If so, the suspicion, reaching Byron's ear, may have prompted the works, but not vice versa. It was an arrow from without, that lodged itself in Lady Byron's heart after she had been led—by other motives—into her quarrel with Mrs. Leigh. At any rate we are unable to agree with our author when he says: "The word [monomania] in no fair way represents the condition of her mind, which never was mad or unsettled or disordered in such a manner as to justify a writer in rating her with sufferers from insanity." The woman who, after having given the most numerous and wholesale proofs in writing of her trust in Mrs. Leigh after the separation, could then turn around and accuse her to a quasi-stranger of the most monstrous crime, as the cause of the separation, must have been a monomaniac. Besides, Mr. Jeaffreson seems to have overlooked the circumstance that Lady Byron's treatment of her sister-in-law is not the only evidence of her disposition to fixed ideas. Elze has cited several others.

One serious fault of our book is the absence of all references to authorities. This is inexcusable in a work which deals with so many points in controversy. In more than one place the author has evidently had access to materials not within reach of the public, but in only one instance, to our recollection, has he indicated the present ownership of a manuscript letter. A full list of books and documents, printed or unprinted, would have doubled the practical usefulness of his work. As to discussing the poet's genius adequately, and in all its relations, Mr. Jeaffreson has wisely refrained from making the attempt. Indeed, we should be at a loss to name a single writer thoroughly qualified. The time has gone by for praising or condemning Byron; the problem is now to understand him, and the first step toward understanding him is to know all the great social and political movements of Europe for twenty years. Which one of us has such knowledge? Certainly not Matthew Arnold, who speaks of Byron as if he were a mere writer of English verse, like Wordsworth, and has yet to learn the patent fact that he was and in a measure still is the mouthpiece of revolutionary Europe. As to Byron's phases of style, the most suggestive opinion is contained in these words, written by Shelley to Gisborne, June 18, 1822: "He touched the chord to which a million hearts responded, and the coarse music which he produced to please them disciplined him to the

perfection which he now approaches." When will our critics learn to see with Shelley's eyes that the later Byron is a vast improvement on the earlier?

ROMANES'S ANIMAL INTELLIGENCE.

Animal Intelligence. By George J. Romanes. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

THE object of this treatise is "to pass the animal kingdom in review, in order to give a trustworthy account of the grade of psychological development which is presented by each group." To carry out this plan in a satisfactory manner, Doctor Romanes a few years ago issued an invitation to all who possessed trustworthy facts bearing on this topic to correspond with him. The facts thus obtained, supplemented by very extensive reading and personal observation, are embodied in the present work, which is without doubt the most carefully-selected and sifted record of the psychic powers of animals ever issued in the English language. Books of anecdotes relating to animals are as common as books of travel, but the vast majority of them are of no scientific value whatever, on account of the absence of all attempt to verify the stories. Doctor Romanes claims that his facts "are either matters of ordinary observation; or they stand upon the authority of observers well known to me as competent; or they are of a kind which do not admit of malobservation; or, lastly, they are well corroborated by similar accounts received from independent observers." With very few exceptions, these claims are justified by the character of the book, and, if the author has erred at all, it is on the side of excessive caution rather than of credulity. 'Animal Intelligence' does not open any new views of extensive range, like the famous first chapters in Darwin's 'Descent of Man,' but it throws light on many points of minor importance, and in dubious cases the evidence is always weighed with that calm absence of bias which the late Mr. Darwin taught his pupils. To him, indeed, Doctor Romanes is indebted not only for advice and suggestion, but for permission to use his notes and clippings on animal intelligence which he had collected for forty years, and for the original MS. of his chapter on "Instinct," which appeared in the 'Origin of Species' in a very condensed form. Doctor Romanes's original plan was to divide his book into two parts, the first dealing with the facts of comparative psychology, the other with their relation to the theory of descent; but the work expanded under his hands so greatly that he saw himself obliged to make a separate treatise of the second part, which he expects to issue in a year or two, under the title, 'Mental Evolution.'

The greater part of the present work is, therefore, devoted to a careful and interesting account of the habits of animals, intermingled with such a large number of anecdotes that it appeals to a much wider circle of readers than is formed by the students of psychology alone. One of the greatest sources of pleasure in reading a novel is supposed to lie in the opportunity it affords the reader of comparing himself with the characters in it. In the same way, all who have pets of any kind will be pleased to discover a resemblance between them and the remarkable specimens here described, and thus perhaps be induced to make original observations, all of which will be gratefully received by Doctor Romanes, at the address given in the volume. Still another class of readers will be greatly edified—namely, those who abhor the notion of their descent from lower animals, on account of the mediæval idea that these remote progenitors and cousins of ours were and are devoid of mind and "soul." They will find how useless it is to

attempt to find an adjective exclusively applicable to man, such as "a reasoning animal," "a tool-making animal," etc.; for animals have all the senses we have—they have memory, imagination, reason, emotions of love, pride, disappointment, anger, jealousy, curiosity, fright, æsthetic emotions, etc.; they form social habits, carry on wars, make slaves, communicate with each other, keep "cows" and pets, yawn, indulge in play and leisure, punish injustice, bury their dead, store up food for a rainy day, or organize a division of labor, sleep, wash themselves and each other, discipline their offspring, die of a "broken heart," assist the sick, adopt orphans, etc., etc. Formerly all these and a thousand other habits and powers of animals were by the book-philosophers attributed to a verbal fetish called "instinct"; but it is now clearly established that instinct is simply inherited experience—the experience of the race as distinguished from that of the individual—and that in all those numerous cases where an animal adapts its actions to a new set of circumstances, and is able to profit by individual experience, we are concerned with inference or reason as distinguished from instinct.

The whole problem of "animal intelligence," indeed, hinges on this distinction between instinct and reason, and in the introductory chapter Doctor Romanes has presented the difference in very clear language. To draw an absolute line between reflex action and instinct on the one hand, and instinct and reason on the other, is as impossible as to discover a distinct break between sanity and insanity; but most of the actions of animals can be pretty accurately classified as belonging to the one or the other division. Our author has perhaps erred in devoting too much space to a description of cases of unquestioned instinct. More than a hundred pages, for instance, are given to an analysis of ants; and although Darwin was quite right in observing that "the brain of an ant is one of the most marvellous atoms of matter in the world, perhaps more so than the brain of a man"; and although many of the actions of ants are unquestionably the result of conscious intelligence and deliberate choice, yet the vast majority are of the nature of pure instinct. In several mysterious and complex cases—as in that of the beaver and the migration of birds—Doctor Romanes has deferred discussion to his second volume, in which he purposes to consider the genesis of mind as a whole. For that volume, accordingly, we must wait before finally deciding upon the value of his contributions to the literature of this fascinating subject, which has busied many great minds, and which stimulated Mr. Darwin, among others, to some of the most subtle and profound efforts of his intellect. Meanwhile it is cause for congratulation that psychologists have taken up the study of such questions, instead of trying to find out how many angels could dance on the point of a needle, or to prove that non-existence and existence are identical.

Next to the problem of instinct, no department of comparative psychology is so interesting and important as the study of the senses of the lower animals. On this Doctor Romanes has not bestowed a sufficient amount of attention. In the works of Gegenbauer, Claus, Haeckel, and other comparative anatomists and zoologists are to be found a host of facts and speculations regarding the senses of the lower animals which are not only very suggestive in themselves, but which have to be constantly borne in mind in attempting to explain the actions of these creatures, because otherwise it may happen (and often does happen) that an animal is credited with some mysterious "instinct" or superior power of reasoning when it has been simply guided by some unheeded sense. Many of the

lower animals seem to have special senses peculiar to themselves; and even where this is not the case, we are too prone to imagine that the two highest senses play the same almost exclusive rôle in intellectual matters as with us. An illustration of this remark is to be found on page 43 of the present treatise. A series of careful experiments made by Sir John Lubbock, in reference to the remarkable power displayed by ants of recognizing members of their community, showed that their recognition cannot be due to a personal acquaintance between all the members of a community, nor effected by means of any sign or pass-word. Doctor Romanes, therefore, concludes that the matter is as yet "wholly unintelligible," whereas a very simple explanation can be suggested. Ants are known to have an acute sense of smell, and Professor Jäger, of Stuttgart, has shown in a pretty conclusive manner that every class and sub-class of animals has its own specific odor. This makes it easy for ants to recognize their fellows, or, as in the case of Amazon ants, their slaves; and our explanation is corroborated by the fact that an ant deprived of its antennæ can no longer distinguish its friends from its foes, as well as by an account, published in *Nature* some five or six years ago, of a combat between two hostile communities of ants which lasted several weeks, but could be interrupted at any time by impregnating the surrounding air with eau de cologne—a proceeding which did not otherwise interfere with their activity.

The emotional life of animals is almost as varied as the intellectual; and although not so fully treated by Doctor Romanes, is well attended to under special headings. Beginning in the simplest form of attraction and aversion very low in the scale of life, it becomes of interest in the case of ants, which already display traces of tender emotions, although hatred and pugnacity appear to be much stronger. Sympathy is shown by bees and ants rather for the injured than for the healthy and those in distress. In sympathy, affection, devotion, elephants, monkeys, and especially dogs, are hardly inferior to man. In maternal self-sacrifice many animals equal woman. If we can infer from the outward expression of emotion to its subjective existence, then dogs and horses are capable of feelings of pride, and dogs also of shame. The order rodentia offers a curious contrast in two of its representatives—the hare, most timid of animals, and the harvest-rat, which spends most of its time in fighting all the animals that come in its way, no matter what their size. The proverbial courage of the lion has been shown to consist, as a rule, in "the better part of valor." Very curious is the entire emotional change which occurs in the "rogues," or those elephants which have become separated from their own herd, and are not allowed to associate with any other herds. "From being a peaceful, sympathetic, and magnanimous animal, the elephant, when excluded from the society of its kind, becomes savage, cruel, and morose to a degree unequalled in any other animal." In the expression of fright very great differences are observed, some animals being indifferent to the wholesale slaughter of their companions, while others show, by the extreme terror and anguish painted on their features, that they have an abstract notion of death. Cats and monkeys appear to be the only animals which share the delight of primitive man in cruelty or torture for its own sake. Vindictiveness is as strongly developed in elephants as if they had Spanish blood in their veins; and a good memory is used in its service. That birds and some other animals display æsthetic emotion, as shown by the development of beautiful ornaments in the males, was clearly proved by Mr. Darwin,

whatever may be thought about the theory of sexual selection, in which he was at issue with Mr. Wallace. Considerable doubt, however, remains in regard to the reported cases of love of music displayed by mice, spiders, etc. Indeed, in regard to spiders, Mr. C. V. Boys (quoted p. 206) has indubitably proved, by means of experiments with a tuning-fork, that what excites spiders is simply the vibrations of the air affecting their web, and leading them to think that a fly has been caught in it. To them the buzz of a fly's wings is doubtless sweeter music than the notes of a Stradivarius or a Steinway. Another myth is disposed of in the chapter on snakes. Sir Joseph Fayrer's opinion, that snake "fascination is only fright," is quoted as "the opinion of all persons who have had the opportunity of looking into the subject in a scientific manner." It has long been a moot question whether a scorpion could be caused by despair to commit suicide. Mr. G. Bidie gave an account in *Nature* of an experiment with a scorpion which was to inflict on itself a fatal sting after the rays of the sun had been focussed on its back. But in a recent number of the same periodical Mr. Bidie says:

"On reconsidering the whole affair, however, it occurred to me that in wounding its own back the scorpion may have merely been trying to get rid of an imaginary enemy. The concentrated rays of the sun, no doubt, caused pain, and the sting was probably directed toward the seat of this in an automatic manner, as a defensive act. This seems to me a more feasible explanation than to regard the action as due to an instinct detrimental to the individual and to the species."

We may close this notice with a paragraph on the psychology of the horse, which is a good specimen of the author's style:

"Another curious emotional feature in the horse is the liability of all the other mental faculties of the animal to become abandoned to that of terror. For I think I am right in saying that the horse is the only animal which, under the influence of fear, loses the possession of every other sense in one mad and mastering desire to run. With its entire mental life thus overwhelmed by the flood of a single emotion, the horse not only loses, as other animals lose, 'presence of mind,' or a due balance among the distinctively intellectual faculties, but even the avenues of special sense become stopped, so that the wholly demented animal may run headlong, and at terrific speed, against a stone wall. I have known a hare come to grief in a somewhat similar fashion when hotly pursued by a dog. This, however, was clearly owing to the hare looking behind instead of before, in a manner not, under the circumstances, unwise; but, as I have said, there is no animal except the horse whose whole psychology is thus liable to be completely dominated by a single emotion."

TWO LIVES OF CROMWELL.

Oliver Cromwell: The Man and his Mission. By J. Allanson Picton. With steel portrait. New York: Cassell & Co. 8vo, pp. 516.

Life of Cromwell. By Paxton Hood. [Standard Library.] New York: Funk & Wagnalls. 12mo, pp. 286.

WHEN one follows in detail the events of the nine years during which Cromwell was, under different titles, virtual ruler of England, it is hard to point to any serious mistake that he made, or to censure either his general policy or his administration. Certainly his conquest of Ireland and his Irish settlement were bloody and stern; but if a Catholic country was to be held under Puritan rule, hardly less would have sufficed. One would have desired a different treatment for Harrison and Vane; but if opposition was to be suppressed, milder measures of repression were hardly possible. His words and his conduct throughout his entire career are those of an earnest, heroic, devoted man, who is led from one step to another by a fatal necessity,

until he stands at last upon the summit of empire, and that by no wish or effort of his own, but because nobody else could do the work that had to be done. What was, then, this work?

The contest between King and Parliament had ended in civil war; the civil war had ended in the death of the King and the establishment of the Commonwealth. The task, therefore, which Cromwell found to his hands in 1649 was the organization of a stable and permanent government of the republican type. Now, the first thing to be noted is that this condition of things—the existence of this problem—was not the work of the people of England by any organized and recognized action. Perhaps the people of England desired the execution of the King and the establishment of a republic, but they had had no opportunity to say so. The lawful organ of the English people was Parliament, and Parliament had ceased to exist. During the civil war, and the years that followed, the Long Parliament had by necessity continued to govern the country by its sole authority, and, through new elections, filling vacant places—the so-called "Recruiters"—had kept up a tolerably complete representation. Parliament, as thus constituted, was the legitimate representative of the country, so far as a genuine representation could be had in such times. Unfortunately, this Parliament was wrong-headed and intolerant; and a deadly feud ensued between it and the army, a body which represented far better than the Parliament the worthiest temper and sentiment of the English people.

The question at issue was of the most vital and fundamental nature, and was determined by the sword. The leaders of the army, bent upon bringing the King to justice, and solely with the view of accomplishing this end, excluded enough members of Parliament to secure a majority for it. This act is known as Pride's Purge. From this moment there was no longer a Parliament. The "Rump" that remained called itself a Parliament, and continued to exercise all the powers of a Parliament; but it was no longer in any true sense an organized representation of the people of England, but an irresponsible body of men invested with authority by the army, and who would be allowed to exercise that authority just so long as they satisfied their masters, and no longer. There is, therefore, something ludicrous in the outcry that they made when Cromwell, on the memorable 20th of April, 1653, told them that the Lord was done with them, and sent them about their business. "You are not a Parliament," he said; and in fact they were not, and never had been.

As to the object for which this weeding out of Parliament took place, it is hard to see what else could safely have been done with the King. A man who, as long as he lived, was an essential part of the Constitution, but who, on principle, broke every engagement that he made, was a difficult element to deal with. Whether in prison or at large, he was equally an embarrassment. Only, when he was dead, it soon appeared that his son, at large and with no bad record, was a new embarrassment. And, worst of all, when they had executed the King, and proclaimed the Commonwealth, they found themselves face to face with a new problem, which was practically impossible of solution. It was easy enough for Cromwell, a man born to rule, to govern England with the strong hand; but to devise a form of republican government without a King, which could be administered by ordinary Englishmen, was not so easy. This was the task which fell to Oliver Cromwell, as the one strong man, to attempt to perform. No republican himself, he had cut loose from the traditional monarchy, and was at the head of a state which called itself a Commonwealth. The natural drift of events

converted this Commonwealth into a monarchy of a new type, but a monarchy which lacked all the elements of permanence. An hereditary protectorate in the family of a Huntingdonshire commoner could never appeal to that sentiment in the people which lies at the very foundation of royalty; and a scheme of government which placed imperial powers in the hands of Richard Cromwell was predestined to failure.

But this scheme of government, predestined to failure, was the only one open to him. That he should seize the helm in the confusion which followed the death of the King, and, by his sole strength, hold the Government together as long as he lived, was a matter of course. The cause of final failure, then, is to be sought, not in his acts as ruler, but in the events which made him ruler—a series of events in which he had as large a share, and as serious a responsibility, as any one. The fatal mistake—that which brought the revolution to shipwreck—was committed when the constituted civil authority was set aside by the military. Mean and incompetent as was the Parliament, it was, nevertheless, the lawful authority in the land; and when it was overthrown, and the country placed under military rule, the result followed which always follows the triumph of the military over the civil authority—despotic rule, the prostration of all the liberties for which they had been so long contending. An impatient American reformer—was it Theodore Parker?—said: "God is not in a hurry, but I am." But the reformer who is in a hurry, who refuses to wait for constitutional methods and the slow ripening of events, always in the end mars his own work.

It is a mistake to assume, as Mr. Picton appears to do, that there was so wide a difference between the notions of the seventeenth century and those of the present day—that the suppression of parliamentary privileges was a slighter offence then than it would be now. He says (p. 382): "The doctrine of government by representation was not so matured nor so well understood then as it is now." And again (p. 416): "As he did not live in the nineteenth century, his notion of the functions of a parliament was perhaps not so clear as ours." Of course, the parliamentary powers of the seventeenth century were less developed than those of the present day; but at a time when the greatest contest between Parliament and prerogative which history records had been going on for nearly half a century, to underrate the importance of the issue in the minds of that generation is to blink the whole question. This was not a dull and remote age; it was an age which was all on fire for constitutional liberty. The remark made on page 392 is more to the purpose: "He did not care much by what constitutional—or, for that matter, by what unconstitutional—methods these things were got done, but done they must be." This is Cromwell's real justification—the military temper of mind which cares only for ends, and regards methods as indifferent. We are no worshippers of constitutional forms, but, after all, these forms are the only security against misgovernment and tyranny. If the "benevolent despot"—as Mr. Picton calls Cromwell—if the great and disinterested man could safely disregard these forms, what would happen when he was succeeded by his weak son or by the base Charles Stuart? One step leads to another, and the illegal act which was deemed necessary one year in order to secure the fruits of the contest against illegal power, was followed by another and yet another—every one of them justifiable except the first.

At last the time seemed to have come for a settlement on a permanent and constitutional basis—the second Protectorate: the old monarchy in its essential features, with Protector

instead of King. It is plain from the tenor of the discussions, the speeches of Cromwell and of the Parliamentary Committee, that the first object of the "Petition and Advice" was to put an end to arbitrary government. The desire to make Cromwell King appears to have this simple motive: the office of King was a magistracy, with a well-defined meaning and limitation in English law—what was the fighting for, all these years, but to establish these limitations?—while the title of Protector was undefined, elastic, capable of being stretched to cover unconstitutional powers. If Cromwell is crowned, his new title, says Whitlocke, "will ground itself in all the ancient foundations of the laws of England." And, again, he speaks of the jealousy "of new titles bringing unknown powers." We would not assert that Cromwell's rejection of the crown was due to a preference for the unconstitutional over the constitutional office and power. The crown had no doubt its attractions for him, as it had for Caesar and for Napoleon, and it seems probable it was solely on account of the opposition of his leading supporters that he at last declared that he could not "undertake this government with the title of King." Moreover, he consented to define and limit the new title so as to make it to all intents and purposes the equivalent of the old. For all that, it must be recognized that the proposition to convert his irregular authority into a constitutional one did not emanate from him, but from Parliament itself. And even this scheme broke down, in its turn, within a few months. Cromwell's ambition was directed toward the practical and moderate end of building up a good government in his own country: no schemes of universal dominion, no constructing of vast empires to fall to pieces by their own weight, like those of Alexander and Napoleon. Sober and earnest, he had none of Napoleon's restless and vulgar vanity. He shared with these and with Charlemagne the defect of some of the greatest minds—that of constructing powers so great that no one but themselves can administer them. These great men forget that common men are to come after them.

The two books which we have placed at the head of our review are characteristic expressions of the feeling of the present day about Cromwell. Mr. Picton's book is a thorough, elaborate study—probably, take it all in all, the best single work upon the subject. Mr. Hood's is shorter and more popular, less guarded in its language, running often into excessive praise or unbalanced censure, but a worthy introduction to the excellent series of popular works of which it forms the first number.

WORK AND WAGES IN PARIS.

La Vie et les Salaires à Paris. Par M. Othenin d'Haussonville. Extrait de la *Revue des Deux Mondes*, livraison du 15 avril. Paris: Quantin. 1883. 8vo, pp. 56.

M. HAUSSEVILLE has recently resumed his studies of life among the poor in Paris, by an exhaustive article on the wages of working men and women and their cost of living. The well-meant effort to secure cheap, wholesome lodgings for the working classes, by combining charity with building and loan associations, has effected, he says, an increase of lodging apartments, such as pay a fair return by being rented at fifty or sixty dollars a year, or half the old rates; but as more than thirty thousand families, out of the forty-six thousand registered on the lists of the public charities, pay much less than forty dollars a year, the well-to-do workman alone can be benefited by the new building societies. The statistics of Paris are very minute

and exact, and in 1880 it was shown that, out of 684,952 separate apartments, housing on an average three persons, 468,641 were let for less than sixty dollars, and that the per-capita rent had risen about one-fourth every ten years in a period of sixty years, so that any increase in wages was much more than overcome by the steady progress in the cost of living. A careful study of the bakery and other food trades of Paris proves that bread alone constitutes about one-third of the food supply of each family, and that it has remained stationary in price for a long period of years. Meat, on the other hand, has cheapened, and has therefore come into much greater use by all classes, although butter, eggs, and cheese have grown dearer; and the high wages of the well-paid workmen are often spent on the purchase of chickens, oysters, and other luxuries that were a few years ago quite unknown to any but the rich. Wine, sugar, and groceries have also steadily advanced in price, but their proportion in the cost of living is a comparatively small one. The public kitchens of Paris have done a great deal to make the workmen comfortable, by supplying good food at cheap rates; and some of the great railroads, and other employers of labor on a large scale, have found it worth their while to supply good meals at cheap rates to their workmen. Still, it costs a man, at least, from a hundred to a hundred and fifty dollars a year to get a fair supply of food such as the French workman requires, including bread and wine, soup and meat, vegetables and cheese, on a basis of twenty-five cents a day, in which bread will cost two cents; wine, six cents; soup and meat, nine cents; vegetables, five cents; cheese, three cents.

The next item in the cost of living is clothing, and that has very sensibly diminished; for now a workman or workwoman can clothe himself or herself for an average of twenty to thirty dollars a year, and be and look both comfortable and neat. Other items, such as washing for six dollars, light for the same sum, fire for heating for four dollars a year, show the economy incidental to Parisian modes of life. The expenses of benevolent societies and of luxuries, such as tobacco, refreshments, car fares, presents to children, entertainments, are all fair items in the cost of living, which, all told, varies from one hundred and seventy to two hundred and forty dollars per annum (the year, with deductions for Sundays and holidays, means three hundred working days), and from seventy-five cents to a dollar must be earned every day to make a workman's life comfortable. Now, census returns give only averages, and personal investigation is the best means of ascertaining how far the Paris working classes are above or below the line of wages necessary to support life comfortably. In Paris a very large proportion of the higher rates of wages is earned by the men who work in art objects; next come those whose trades imply both training and strength—workers in iron and the building trades; and then all others may be roughly classed as laboring men. Strikes are the luxury of the well-paid workmen; for those who live from hand to mouth have no faith in such a means of bettering their condition. The jeweller's and silversmith's trade is one that seems particularly at home in Paris, and the perfection attained in it is largely due to the long training of the apprentices, who, for three or four years, receive no wages, but begin, as soon as they are working on their own account, with a dollar a day, and, finally, as foremen, earn from three to six dollars a day. Type-setters earn from a dollar and a half to three dollars a day; pressmen from a dollar and three-quarters to two dollars and a half a day. Wood-engravers vary from a dollar and a half to three dollars a day, but those who are

recognized almost as artists earn from that to six dollars.

Of the men employed in the building trades the wages are ascertained by a rule special to Paris. The city of Paris is a large employer of skilled labor of this kind, and, as it prescribes the rate of wages to be paid by its contractors, that has become practically the rule for all Paris. Although originally intended only as a maximum rate, it has now become the average for all employers, and thus the increased cost of building is one of the factors in the heightened cost of living in Paris. The city now pays to stonecutters two dollars and a half for twelve hours' work in summer, and two dollars for eight hours in winter—that is, from November 1 to April 30. Other masons get a dollar and a half in summer, and a dollar and a quarter in winter; and helpers get a dollar in summer, and eighty cents in winter. Carpenters get a dollar and three quarters in summer, and a dollar and a quarter in winter; and tinsmiths, marble-masons, and painters and glaziers about the same, with, of course, higher rates for those engaged in the artistic branches, such as fresco and other decorations. Many outdoor workmen go home to the country for the three winter months. Under the generous example of the city as an employer, the wages have advanced from 25 to 60 per cent. in the various kinds of trades, with no particular reason for the difference other than an accidental influence in the city government. In the trades that have to do with interior decoration, the wood carvers earn from two dollars and a half to three dollars a day, upholsterers and others at the same rate, while German and Italian workmen get from sixty cents to a dollar a day. Machinists earn from a dollar a day up, according to their special employment and mastery of it, and there the wages have increased in the last ten years by one third, although the gain has been mainly to those earning the highest wages. Wagon and carriage building is a special Paris industry, and the men working in it earn from one to two dollars a day, and their wages increase much faster than the cost of living.

The average ordinary day laborer, in all varieties of employment, gets from sixty cents to a dollar, and often the foreigners, who come in crowds together to Paris, live in such a way as to save something to take home. The hundreds of modes of earning a living seen in the streets of Paris, by other than regular industries, are curious and well worth studying, and M. Haussonville supplies much information, the result of personal observation. He estimates the number of regular workmen in Paris at 250,000; of those who live by occasional jobs, at 75,000; and of beggars and vagabonds, at 15,000. Then, again, he estimates that 74 per cent. of the working population earn a dollar and more a day, 22 per cent. earn from eighty cents to a dollar, and 4 per cent. earn less than the former sum. Paris is, indeed, in the eyes of the French workman, the paradise of wages; but, on the other hand, it is the scene of many strikes that have reduced good workmen to helpless poverty, and on the lists of those receiving public charity there are five times as many mechanics of the best-paying trades as there are, for instance, of cobblers, the humblest class of shoemakers. Paris is in a still greater degree the paradise of workingwomen, for they find employment in much greater variety than anywhere else. In every pursuit, however—painting, designing, printing, wood-engraving—they must be content with from 20 to 40 per cent. less wages than the men engaged in the same kind of work. In many of their special trades—flower-making, embroidering, dress-making—where the wages average a dollar a day, there is a long dull sea-

son, so that enough must be earned during the busy times to tide over this. Many industries pay women only fifty cents a day, and this is largely due to the competition in all kinds of sewing of the prisons, reformatories, convents, and other charities; and thousands of poor women in Paris are thus reduced to the lowest point of misery or vice. Naturally, there are nearly twice as many women registered as recipients of public charity as men, and of the total of over 40,000 of the former, 5,000 are day-laborers, 2,298 are house-servants, 1,500 are sewing-women, and 1,200 dressmakers. With an average of \$170 as the lowest amount that will suffice for living in Paris, to be earned by 300 days' work, there are many women whose earnings fall below that modest minimum. That women never go on strikes is some evidence of their common sense, and that many of them endure their misery and hardship rather than purchase comfort at the cost of virtue, is an evidence of the highest qualities. It is only the aristocracy of the working class that indulges in strikes and in other luxuries.

Of cooperative societies and kindred alliances between capital and labor, the well-paid workmen are the only beneficiaries. In Paris there were in 1880 only twenty-five establishments with any such principle at work, and, as some of these were banks and insurance companies, the proportion of workmen engaged in the experiment was very small, and its benefits were almost exclusively enjoyed by those earning the best wages. The easy suggestion of industrial training does not really help to solve the question, for only those who master their trade (no matter where it is learned) are lifted out of the class of workmen not earning a fair average support, while for the large class of workingwomen there seems no such remedy at hand. The increase of charities of all kinds to help them in time of greatest need, is, after all, the one provision that is always most urgently suggested by a study of their condition.

Reminiscences and Memorials of the Men of the Revolution and their Families. By A. B. Mussey. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

THE author of this work, as appears incidentally, is a Unitarian clergyman, a graduate of Harvard in the class of 1824, and a native of Lexington, Mass. It is also inferrible that he is an hereditary member of the Society of the Cincinnati, his paternal grandfather having been one of Captain John Parker's company, and in the Lexington fight, though apparently not on the Common. As a boy he knew many of the survivors of that memorable engagement. In the early days of his ministry he became acquainted with many of the Revolutionary celebrities, both military and civil. From such an experience he has woven the present work, without much attention to form or sequence, and with a certain not unpleasant naïveté. If there is a tendency nowadays to overlook the merit of the men who fought in the ranks or in command to secure national independence—a disposition to pay higher honors to the moral heroism which discards carnal weapons—Mr. Mussey has done what he could to counteract it. He even bids us to observe that Emerson, as if by virtue of his descent, was "by eminence," not a Poet, or a Seer, but "a Patriot."

He first describes the more prominent members of certain great families, the Otises, Adamses, Quincys, Lincolns, Parkers, Kirklands, etc., some of them related by marriage among themselves or with the author's family. Then he passes to the Society of the Cincinnati, giving numerous biographical and genealogical sketch-

es; tells of the Revolutionary men in the war of 1812, with a special chapter on Oliver Hazard Perry; describes (and this is one of the most valuable functions of the book) the personal appearance of Revolutionary officers; relates what he saw of Lafayette on his last visit to America, and of Andrew Jackson in his New England tour, in 1833; goes over the battle of Lexington, recording the traits of individual participants, and throws a sop to Southern sensibility by balancing his one-sided reminiscences with a tribute to the Revolutionary valor of the non-New England colonies. Channing and Ware are celebrated by their co-sectary, along with Emerson and Theodore Parker. Finally, there is a curiously interpolated chapter on the Anti-slavery Movement, which is excused by its autobiographical bearing, as well as by its intrinsic importance. Mr. Mussey was a member of the Cambridge Society which undertook ostensibly to put down slavery by the use of soft words under the direction of the Unitarian brotherhood, but which was really meant as a bridle on the harsh language of the editor of the *Liberator*. It lived long enough to discover its incapacity for either job, and then dissolved and was forgotten. Mr. Mussey gives its constitution and membership.

Much might be copied from these pages if space permitted, but we must be sparing. In 1823 Harrison Gray Otis was a rival of William Eustis for the governorship of Massachusetts.

"Eustis had won fame as a surgeon in the Revolution, and in subsequent civil capacities. Otis was strongly opposed, among other things, for his theological views, being an avowed Unitarian; while Eustis was of the Orthodox faith, and widely supported by that denomination, which gave him success at the polls. Mr. Otis, on meeting him in the street the next day, after the result was known, said to him, 'I have no doubt you believe now in the doctrine of election'" (p. 35).

Of Benjamin Lincoln we read:

"General Lincoln's home was in Hingham to the last, and the house in which he was born and died is now owned and occupied by his grandchildren, who are the seventh generation who have lived there. The estate has descended in a direct line from the ancestor who settled there in 1636. Six generations of Lincolns have been born on that spot, and each family had a son named Benjamin" (p. 113).

The following picture is seldom in mind when we think of the time which it recalls:

"The privations we suffered during the war of 1812 were only second to those of our fathers in the Revolution. I can never forget the straits to which it brought us in the family. Nearly all imported articles were beyond our means: our garments were of cheap fabrics. A blue broadcloth of American manufacture, presented to my father, was made for long years to do service, until its threads could be almost counted. Not only foreign coffees and all the best teas were denied us, but at last the miserable bobea tea and rye coffee were cut off from constant use; and we would sit around our board, confined, one and all, to the oft recurring baked apples and milk. Not only did the whole country feel the indirect pressure of want, but a fearful direct taxation consumed their very substance" (p. 247).

We close with Mr. Mussey's account of the great gale of September, 1815, following the war:

"It began between eight and nine o'clock in the forenoon, coming from the southeast, and continued about four hours. Houses and barns were blown down, chimneys were overthrown, and windows dashed in; the tides in Boston and Cambridge, we heard, were fearfully high; and in the latter place a vessel was washed up from the shore and driven into the main street of the town. I saw, during the morning, trees of the larger sizes uprooted in every direction. A new shed, 100 feet long, which my father had built for his hotel, was taken up, carried high in the air, as if by a giant's hand, and dropped a long way from its foundation. I followed my father to one of his houses, where he saw the roof at one end beginning to rise, and rushed with him

to the attic, where, axe in hand, he dashed out the windows at the other end, and thus saved the unroofing of the house. The air, at a distance of thirteen miles from the ocean, was so saturated with salt water that it was difficult to breathe. This was Saturday; and the next day the church was not opened, for the roads were all so covered with trees uprooted and blown into them that, as was said, 'the people could not ride to meeting'" (p. 250).

Familiar Sketches of the Phillips Exeter Academy and Surroundings. By Frank H. Cunningham. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

To write the history of a great public school is to work in the direction of its founder, for to extend its fame is to add to its endowment and prolong its existence. This, however, is only part of the service rendered by such a commemoration in a country where the example of public spirit is so contagious as in our own; and the handsome volume before us may well determine many a latent benefaction in the direction of education. The two Phillips academies at Exeter, N. H., and Andover, Mass., are a singular monument to the illustrious family whose name they bear; certainly, in the hundred years since the junior institution here celebrated was established, we can recall no parallel, whether we consider the circumstances of their common origin or the high success which both have achieved.

Mr. Cunningham's narrative, as its title implies, is marked by good-will and devotion rather than by literary skill, and is rightly to be viewed as a compilation, even for the editor's own part in it. But he is almost a pioneer in Phillips Exeter antiquities, and deserves credit for much laborious research as well as for the collaboration which he has secured. The biographical sketches in particular are the work of many hands, and are interesting if not particularly well done. They all agree in taking a genial view of the character described, except in a solitary instance, that of Jeremiah Kingman, whose "one grave fault" is faithfully remembered, though no name is given to it, and though it is morally and historically certain that as great failings have been entirely overlooked in the case of other subjects of these sketches. Whether this is worth consideration in preparing a second edition, as Mr. Cunningham contemplates, we leave it for him to decide. There is a good story of the father of Lewis Cass (who, like that other unsuccessful Presidential candidate, John P. Hale, was a graduate of the Academy). When asked by the principal, Dr. Abbot, who had taken the "very wild boy" to see what he could do with him, how his son was getting along, "Well, sir," said the Major, "if Lewis was half as afraid of the Almighty as he is of you, I should never have any more trouble with him." It is also worth while to quote the instructive experience of Webster at Exeter: "The kind and excellent Buckminster sought to persuade me to perform the exercise of declamation like the other boys, but I could not do it. . . . Mr. Buckminster always pressed and entreated with the most winning kindness that I would venture once; but I could not command sufficient resolution." The *Reminiscences and Anecdotes* grouped around the dates 1808, 1811, 1822, 1855 are very entertaining.

The volume is well illustrated with heliotype views and woodcuts, and it has been possible to present photographic views of the three Academy buildings. The first is still standing. The second was burnt to the ground in 1870, and the present building was to a certain extent, as in the distribution of its parts, modelled upon it. If it is safe to judge from the prints, the elder design was much superior to the later (we are now speaking of externals merely), in proportion, dignity, and simplicity. One need only

compare the belfries to see how far the translation is from the original. Yet, according to Mr. Cunningham, the new building is "perfect in its proportions and graceful in its outlines."

A Study of the Manuscript Troano. By Cyrus Thomas, Ph.D. With an Introduction by D. G. Brinton, M.D. From 'Contributions to North American Ethnology,' vol. v. Washington: Smithsonian Institution. 1882. Pp 237.

THE last five years, in this country, have been uncommonly fruitful in the production of work which shows a marked tendency toward digging somewhat deeper than formerly was the habit, into the manifold layers of rubbish lying between us and the soil upon which ancient American civilization built its mysterious structures. When we were young and wished to inform ourselves about what kind of magnificent empires were conquered and destroyed by Cortez and Pizarro, it was Robertson whom we were directed to look up as the authority to be consulted. An epoch then followed in which we were freely referred to the pages of Prescott. We shall never forget the delight with which we listened to the music of his diction, nor the confidence we felt, on studying the learned notes appended to the brilliant text, that he had been dipping from the very sources of sound knowledge. Yet both Robertson and Prescott have had their day. They are reproached with having fascinated our imagination and misled our judgment by fancies and perfumed dreams. A new class of students has arisen, bent upon reviewing and adequately reshaping the material left for the reconstruction of the early history of our continent. Various important contributions to this end have been made by Messrs. Bandelier, Valentini, Putnam, Powell, Mallery, Yarrow, Gatschet, Rau, Holden, and others, as well by the learned societies, the Archaeological Institute of America, the Antiquarian American Society of Worcester, the Peabody Museum in Cambridge, and the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, which in almost uninterrupted succession, during the last five years, have made the work presented by students accessible in print to the reader at home as well as abroad.

A study of the Manuscript Troano is now laid before the public. All who are interested in learning the final results obtainable from an examination of this remnant of Yucatecan art when interpreted by a competent scholar, will feel satisfied with the sound common sense and the thoroughness with which Mr. Cyrus Thomas has accomplished his arduous task. After the more than ridiculous attempt made at their interpretation by the late Brasseur de Bourbourg it is refreshing to follow Mr. Thomas's patient and judicious analysis of the host of little pictures, and to witness his organizing faculty in grouping them so as to present an intelligible whole. It was always supposed that the Codex Troano was nothing else than one of those peculiar pictorial calendars which the Yucatecan priests made use of for their ritual purposes, and no doubt about its being so remains in view of the abundant and minute evidence which Mr. Thomas offers. Not only is this evidence based upon a constant reference to a group of Yucatecan calendar symbols, the meaning of which is known, or upon a sagacious identification of the painted objects themselves, but also, above all, our author was able to adapt a whole set of successive groups to a description which Bishop Landa, right after the Conquest, gave of the contents of such a ritual calendar. It almost seems as if, while writing, the Bishop had this specimen of the Troano painting either in mind or before his eyes. The interpretation itself is prefaced by a very able discussion of the funda-

mental structure of the Yucatecan Calendar. Laymen ambitious of general information, as well as scholars who are conversant with this abstruse specialty, will be made aware that the subject is handled by a master hand.

Our thankfulness for Mr. Thomas's teachings, however, does not go so far as to make us yield unconditional acceptance. If, on the one hand, for instance, he seems to be remarkably felicitous in his identification of many of the Troano pictures, and views them accordingly as representing objects drawn from nature, though somewhat distorted and not conventional with our methods of delineation, on the other hand, he indulges in the opinion that a portion of them may be amenable to phonetic interpretation, and this to such a degree that he attempts a translation of them. He neither clearly explains why both modes of interpretation are allowable, nor traces the limit at which the ideographic interpretation must cease and the phonetic begin. Moreover, it must be borne in mind that the phonetic clew employed by Mr. Thomas is of a very doubtful character. He relies upon the authenticity of the so-called clew of the Landa alphabet. The credit, however, which this clew enjoyed during the first decade of its discovery has lately received such rude shocks that it will hardly succeed in ever recovering from them. Besides, only recently, its most ardent champion, Prof. Léon de Rosny, of Paris, has publicly avowed that the supposed clew has proved to be unavailable for the purpose of deciphering the Yucatecan hieroglyphics.

In conclusion we venture to call Mr. Thomas's attention to an interesting suggestion made by A. von Humboldt in his famous 'Essai politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne' (Livre iii., Chapter viii.). When preparing the edition of this work in Paris, he had a visit from a highly cultured Persian gentleman to whom he chanced to show one of the pages of the so-called Dresden Codex, a book which in arrangement and composition is known to be almost a counterpart of the Troano. This gentleman, Humboldt goes on to narrate, thought he recognized in these pictured pages, at first sight, certain paintings of Asiatic geomancy, which in his country bear the name of *alem al raml*. And again, in the 'Vues des Cordillères,' when discussing the Mexican Calendar Stone and its twenty symbols for the days of the month, the German savant, with his usual precision as well as cautiousness, points out a surprising similarity between these symbols and their arrangement and those engraved on the ancient Turanian Zodiac. And these are not the only striking resemblances between the civilization of the two continents, which for three hundred years have formed topics of learned discussion among archaeologists.

The Sportsman's Gazetteer and General Guide
By Charles Hallock. Orange Judd Co.

THIS is a large book, of nearly 900 pages, and contains a vast amount of information about almost every kind of wild beast, bird, and fish in North America, with directions as to their successful pursuit. It is meant to be a manual for sportsmen, and is quite as near the mark as any book covering so much ground can hope to be. Directions are given how to get to any place in any State where game or fish is to be found; where to stop, and how to proceed to despatch the animals pursued. We do not think it would in all cases be safe to place implicit reliance on these instructions. There are a number of chapters on dogs—principally those used for sporting—and their diseases; a good chapter on guns; one on fly fishing; one on boats, a "bibliography for sportsman"; a most amusing "glossary—common words in local use throughout North

America," which would interest and edify any ascetic; and recipes and cures for every ill and accident that can possibly befall a sportsman while exercising his craft; e. g., "Fishbone in Throat—If you get a fishbone in your throat fast there, swallow an egg raw; it will be sure to carry down a bone easily and certainly." There are, as might be expected, mistakes in some of Mr. Hallock's statements, but not enough to affect materially the general trustworthiness of the book. A number of good railway maps accompany the volume, which is illustrated.

Sketching from Nature. A Handbook for Students and Amateurs. By Tristram J. Ellis. With a frontispiece and ten illustrations by H. Stacy Marks, R.A., and twenty-seven sketches by the author. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THIS is a loosely written and superficial little book, which can, as a whole, give very little real help to students or amateurs. Yet as we sometimes find useful hints and suggestions in books of this character, there are here scattered passages from which may be gathered more or less that is serviceable. In his introductory remarks the author alludes to the embarrassments to beginners which often arise from the intensity of out-of-door light, and makes some good observations regarding the choice of position in relation to the light, and on various modes of shielding the work from its glare. He also explains why a drawing in color executed out of doors has so different, and often so disappointing, a look when viewed under the light of an ordinary room; and suggests what allowance, during the progress of the work, should be made in consequence. These are matters, indeed, which an intelligent beginner will sooner or later find out for himself; but much time and vexation may be saved by his being apprised of them at the outset. On p. 4, in speaking of the carefulness necessary to good workmanship, it is well said that "the quicker the manipulation the closer the care required." This is an important truth for the young sketcher. It does not generally appear, but it is nevertheless the fact, that the care necessary to make a slight sketch that is worth anything, and the resulting fatigue, are much greater, proportionately, than in the case of more deliberate and elaborate work. It is important for the beginner to know that a good artist always takes great pains. He never works carelessly. His quick work is done by intense effort and a simplified aim, not by any manner of recklessness.

On p. 6 the fundamental principle that any scene, or group of objects, in nature presents to the eye an assemblage of variously shaped patches of colors, variously shaded, and that the good colorist lays hold of this as his primal color conception and temporarily resolves these patches into essentially flat fields—Egyptian fashion—is seriously misstated as follows: "All nature appears to the eye as a series of flat patches of color and shade of different strengths." The words which we italicize convey an absolute untruth. Nature does not appear in flat patches. On the contrary it is hardly possible, in nature, to find such a thing as an apparently flat patch of color. The instructions for practice are given too much in the form of recipe, as, for instance, on p. 14, where a pupil is told, in sketching a passage of distance, to "be careful to make the lights and shades only slightly different." It would be better to direct him to observe the conditions, stating perhaps, at the same time, that, as a general rule, the contrasts of light and shade in the distance are less strong than they are in the foreground. On p. 29 we find the unwarrantable affirmation that in working with

the lead pencil the lines must always be kept firm and sharp. "Directly rubbing or stump is employed, all the beauty of pencil-work vanishes," says the author. Now, the fact is that one of the most valuable qualities of the lead pencil consists in the brush-like softness which it may be made to give; so that tint and line may easily be combined in sketching with it. A good draftsman will rub in a tint of soft pencilling with his finger, or a stump, and define forms with the pencil point, with delightful as well as most legitimate effect. Such effects are preeminently legitimate, since they are precisely those which call out the complete capabilities of the instrument.

On p. 76 are some good remarks about placing figures in a landscape. The principles referred to in this connection, though obvious enough, are not always heeded by amateurs, or even by artists. On p. 76 the pupil is advised never to copy, as "it utterly stunts the imagination and self-dependence." We consider this wholly untrue, and contrary to both reason and experience. The great Italian masters were often most faithful copyists in their pupilage; of this the notable case of Michael Angelo is an instance. It is true that the mindless and slavish copying which is so deplorably common in European galleries, is useless enough; but intelligent copying, from the works of true masters, is an invaluable, if it be not also an indispensable, mode of study. It will hurt neither the imagination nor the proper self-dependence of the student. The lesson in Tone given on pp. 90, 91 is involved with serious fallacies, as where the author says that "to the modern French school must be given the credit of carrying out the study of values to its greatest refinement"; and, again, that Rembrandt was "the pioneer of relative tone." We have

repeatedly, in these columns, shown that the "values" of the modern French school, and of Rembrandt, are usually so extravagant as to be far from refined and true. The advice, p. 92, to "Put in the background with strokes as evenly as you can, but going in different directions" (sic) is erroneous; for the expression of tone is not dependent upon the manner in which the lines which may compose a tint are drawn; and it is waste of time and misdirection of effort to bestow any care upon such lines. Again, with regard to a black dabber (grouped with other objects as a model) the author says: "Make it as black as you can," whereas the only proper advice, in such a case, would be to make it, if possible, as black as it appears. That is to say, the student, in these matters, should never be required to do anything in simple obedience to a precept, but he should be required, rather, to observe the model and represent what he sees as nearly as he can. Nothing is said, anywhere in the lesson, on the important fact that, since the scale of light and dark in nature greatly exceeds that at the disposal of the painter, it is impossible, in most cases, to reproduce values with anything like actual truth—a fact which is generally ignored by nearly all writers and teachers, even those who lay most stress upon the importance of values.

The book is divided into twelve chapters, among which is a very inadequate one on Elementary Perspective. The best are those upon "Composition and Selection of Subject," and on "Figures in Landscape," respectively. The illustrations are, for the most part, poor; though there are several among them which show a pleasant sense of composition, which, it is but just to say, is as rare in popular treatises of this kind as it is in popular art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- A Newport Aquarelle: a Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.
 Art, L. Vol. xxxiii. J. W. Bouton.
 Benedict, F. L. The Price She Paid: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.25.
 Blanchard, R. History of Illinois, accompanied by an Historical Map of the State. New York: C. L. Woodward. \$3.
 Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 90-94. B. Westermann & Co.
 Gilchrist, Anne. Mary Lamb. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.
 Gross, C. Gilda Mercatoria: Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der englischen Städteverfassung. Göttingen: Deuerlich.
 Grove, G. Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Parts 17, 18. Sketches to Sumner is Icumen in. Macmillan & Co.
 Heidenheimer, H. Petrus Martyr Anglerius und sein Opus Epistolarium. Berlin: Oswald Seehagen; New York: S. Zickel.
 Hood, P. Scottish Characteristics. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
 Jackson, L. D'A. Accented Five-Figure Logarithms of Numbers from 1 to 99,999. London: W. H. Allen & Co.
 Longley, E. The Reporter's Guide. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. \$2.
 Modern Age. Vol. I. Buffalo, N. Y. \$1.50.
 Mougeolle, P. Statique des Civilisations. Paris: E. Leroux.
 O'Hanlon, Alice. Robert Reid, Cotton-Spinner: a Story. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
 Payne, Alice H. The Rage of the Age: a Story. New York: Oscar Dryer.
 Racinet, A. Le Costume Historique. Part 14. Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: J. W. Bouton.
 Ross, D. W. Early History of Land-holding among the Germans. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
 Schuette, Prof. C. H. L. The State, the Church, and the School. Columbus: Lutheran Book Concern. \$1.50.
 Scott, Sir W. Lady of the Lake. Edited by W. J. Rolfe. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 75 cents.
 Scudder, M. L., Jr. Congested Prices. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.
 Sternburg, Dr. G. M. Photo-Micrographs, and How to Make Them. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$3.

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